Proceedings of the I·R·E

A Journal of Communications and Electronic Engineering

(Including the WAVES AND ELECTRONS Section)

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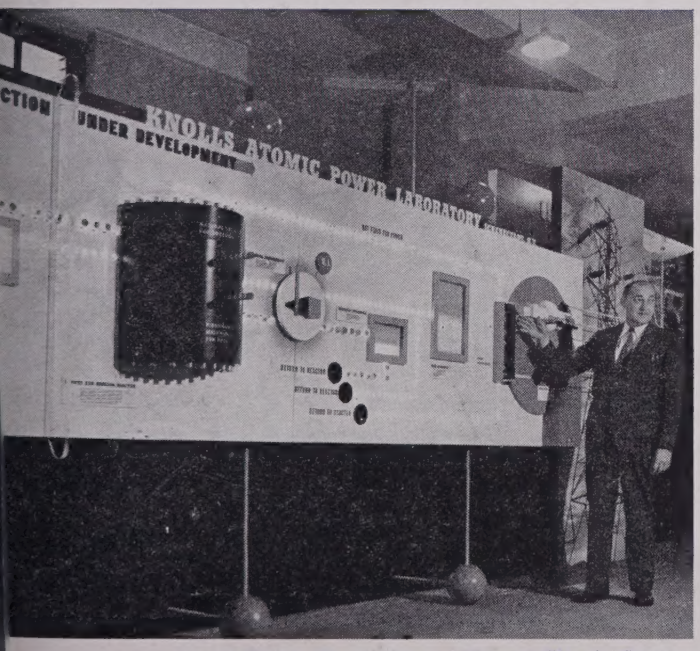

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VOLUME 36 — *November, 1948* — NUMBER 11

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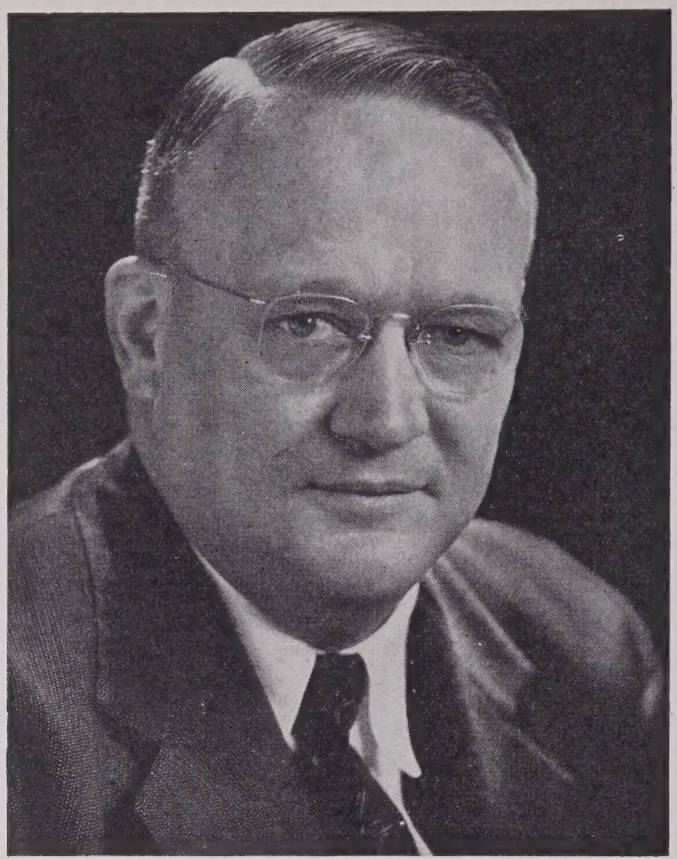

Theodore A. Hunter

DIRECTOR, 1948–1949

Theodore A. Hunter was born on December 5, 1900, in Dike, Iowa. He received the B.S. and M.S. degrees in electrical engineering from the University of Iowa in 1922 and 1924, respectively, and the professional E.E. degree in 1931.

While attending college, Mr. Hunter took an active part in campus pioneer radio work, and he also engaged in early research on extremely high-gain amplifiers for nerve-current measurements and other medical work. After completing school, he became a transmission-line inspector for the Northwestern Bell Telephone Company, and later joined the Crosley Radio Corporation to supervise loudspeaker development. Subsequently he taught at the University of Pittsburgh and the Rose Polytechnic Institute.

Following a period of semiretirement, during which he engaged in consulting work on police radio systems, Mr. Hunter joined the Collins Radio Company at Cedar Rapids, Iowa, in 1940. There he developed the Navy Model TCS series transmitter, one of the mainstay mobile transmitters used by the Allies in World War II. Becoming interested in the design and construction of extremely stable master oscillators, his many published articles include several on the subject, and he has also presented papers dealing with oscillators before several IRE sections.

In 1947, Mr. Hunter left Collins in order to form his own organization—the Hunter Manufacturing Company—where he specializes in electronic equipment for amateurs and for use by the medical profession. He is also working as a consultant for the University of Iowa on a Navy project.

Becoming an Associate Member and a Member of the IRE in the same year, 1945, Mr. Hunter was made a Senior Member in 1946. In 1944 he was the prime mover behind the formation of the Cedar Rapids Section of the IRE. Mr. Hunter is a member of Sigma Xi, a past member of the American Physical Society, a district director of the Iowa Engineering Society, and president of the Cedar Rapids Engineer's Club.

Electronic engineering—healthy child of communications technique—has shown the characteristic strength and vagaries of youth. As it approaches maturity, its problems and their solutions become increasingly evident. These are discussed, on the basis of wide experience, in the following guest editorial by a skilled electronic consulting engineer who was executive editor of the periodical *Electronic Industries*.—*The Editor*.

Electronics in Industry

RALPH R. BATCHER

For two decades industry has been acquainted with electronic methods as possible solutions to production problems. Many practical applications have been installed and tested. Widespread publicity has been given to the economics of the installations. Yet an analysis of such progress as has been made finds that equipment sales in this field have hardly begun, in effect, when their potentialities are considered.

Through the years many radio concerns with excellent engineering staffs and adequate production facilities have introduced many items to industry as a sideline. Nevertheless, with few exceptions these devices hardly ever paid their development costs. Why?

During the nineteen-twenties, industrial electronics meant phototube door openers, high-frequency corn poppers, diathermy machines, photocell registration devices, and the like. For these services, and others which came later, many packaged devices are on sale that are expected to fit any problem. Many that were sold have never seen service, mainly because of the difficulty in getting the accessories needed. Adherence to this policy of producing a package containing the electronic elements of some useful system is not helping to advance the art. It is necessary to forget that there is such a thing as an electronic black box that can be set down anywhere to do a job.

In so many cases, electronics is not something new that can be added to any existing process. For example, high-frequency heating of "preforms," a valuable use for electronics, requires extensive relaying out of molding processes, different operating cycles, and so forth. Electronic equipment to be of value must be an integral part of the whole setup—just as a motor is a part of the system. While it can be sold or installed separately, to be most effective it should come as part of a planned installation.

Electronic equipment is a small but necessary cog in the modern technique of manufacturing. Nevertheless, there seems very little chance for radio equipment companies to get into this field extensively, except by building equipment that ties in as a part of some manufacturing setup, so that the customer will be sure that, once installed, the equipment will function as a whole. However, there will be no mass market here in most cases, as each problem requires a separate approach.

Cost savings and product improvements become a part of the whole system, and the part played by the purely electronic portion usually cannot be estimated separately, although its value is evident. The present attempt to promote electronic devices as accessories is like publicizing automobiles in order to sell balloon tires to the public. Everyone agrees on their value, but everyone also knows that they must be designed into the car, not added later as accessories. Electronic control will be extensively used when machine-tool manufacturers make machinery available with all of the necessary electron-tube circuits in place.

The radio manufacturer usually forgets, when he promotes a packaged electronic unit to industry at large, that a great amount of nonelectronic machinery must be tracked down, purchased, and assembled before the unit may be applied to the job. For example, in printing registration it is next to impossible to apply phototube devices to many of the existing presses without virtually reconstructing the whole machine. A fifty-dollar electronic registration control might take many thousands of dollars worth of mechanical equipment to complete the job. Such controls must be added by the manufacturer of the press if they are to be used.

Another deterrent is a lack of clear understanding of industrial problems by electronic engineers who have grown up in the communication field. For example, one field to which electronics may be applied is that of automatic control in the so-called process industries: textiles, rubber, chemicals, oils, plastics, and so on. The whole process of control is rapidly being instrumentized, frequently by pneumatic and hydraulic controls. Here electronic methods have keen competition. Many radio men have been surprised upon investigating pneumatic control methods to find them exceedingly ingenious and to discover that they do many jobs surprisingly well without much complicated equipment requirements. They also discover that a different language is used in these fields, with terms and ideas completely different from those used in radio. Since pneumatic and other control methods started along with industry itself, industry does not have to learn a new language in order to use these systems. Electronic men trying to get industrial business must learn industry's problems and interpret their circuits and systems into its own terms.

They will discover that many of the electronic devices now in use are not too well designed. Equipment designed by tube circuit men is often too frail and ill-suited to plant use. On the other hand, the equipment set up by designers acquainted with these hazards uses circuits that are far from being reliable and constant over months or years. They tend to use one or two tubes to do complicated jobs, on the now-obsolete theory that, since tubes are "fragile and unpredictable," the fewer used the better.

With everything "trimmed up to the peak," it is no wonder that such apparatus drifts around. Industry needs the services of engineers who can set up circuits that are reliable and simple to service in that over-the-counter tubes may be put in without harm.

In other words, what is needed is the use of a few of the ideas learned in the radio industry several years ago, chiefly that tubes are cheap, and that an extra tube or so can serve well in making a circuit simpler and it may compensate for variations due to aging and many industrial hazards.

The Philosophy of PCM*

B. M. OLIVER†, MEMBER, IRE, J. R. PIERCE†, FELLOW, IRE, AND C. E. SHANNON†

Summary—Recent papers[1-6] describe experiments in transmitting speech by PCM (pulse code modulation). This paper shows in a general way some of the advantages of PCM, and distinguishes between what can be achieved with PCM and with other broadband systems, such as large-index FM. The intent is to explain the various points simply, rather than to elaborate them in detail. The paper is for those who want to find out about PCM rather than for those who want to design a system. Many important factors will arise in the design of a system which are not considered in this paper.

I. PCM and Its Features

THERE ARE SEVERAL important elements of a PCM (pulse-code modulation) system. These will be introduced, and the part each plays in PCM will be explained in this section.

Sampling

In general, the object of a transmission system is to reproduce at the output any function of time which appears at the input. In any practical system only a certain class of functions, namely, those limited to a finite frequency band, are admissible inputs. A signal which contains no frequencies greater than W_0 cps cannot assume an infinite number of independent values per second. It can, in fact, assume exactly $2W_0$ *independent* values per second, and the amplitudes at any set of points in time spaced τ_0 seconds apart, where $\tau_0 = 1/2W_0$, specify the signal completely. A simple proof of this is given in Appendix I. Hence, to transmit a band-limited signal of duration T, we do not need to send the entire continuous function of time. It suffices to send the finite set of $2W_0T$ independent values obtained by sampling the instantaneous amplitude of the signal at a regular rate of $2W_0$ samples per second.

If it surprises the reader to find that $2W_0T$ pieces of data will describe a continuous function completely over the interval T, it should be remembered that the $2W_0T$ coefficients of the sine and cosine terms of a Fourier series do just this, if, as we have assumed, the function contains no frequencies higher than W_0.

Reconstruction

Let us now proceed to the receiving end of the system, and assume that, by some means, the sample values representing the signal are there and available in proper time sequence, and can be used at the regular rate $2W_0$. To reconstruct the signal it is merely necessary to generate from each sample a proportional impulse, and to pass this regularly spaced series of impulses through an ideal low-pass filter of cutoff frequency W_0. The output of this filter will then be (except for an over-all time delay and possibly a constant of proportionality) identical to the input signal. Since the response of an ideal low-pass filter to an impulse is a $\sin x/x$ pulse, and since the total output is the linear sum of the responses to all inputs, this method of reconstruction is simply the physical embodiment of the method indicated in Appendix I.

Ideally, then, we could achieve perfect reproduction of a signal if we could transmit information giving us exactly the instantaneous amplitude of the signal at intervals spaced $1/2W_0$ apart in time.

Quantization

It is, of course, impossible to transmit the *exact* amplitude of a sample. The amplitude of a sample is often transmitted as the amplitude of a pulse, or as the time position of a pulse. Noise, distortion, and crosstalk between pulses will disturb the amplitude and position, and hence cause errors in the recovered information concerning the size of the sample. Ordinarily the error becomes greater as the signal is amplified by successive repeaters, and hence the accumulation of noise sets a limit to the distance a signal can be transmitted even with enough amplification.

It is possible, however, to allow only certain discrete levels of amplitude or position of the transmitted pulse. Then, when the signal is sampled, the level nearest the true signal level is sent. When this is received and amplified, it will have a level a little different from any of the specified levels. If the noise and distortion are not too great, we can surely tell which level the signal was supposed to have. Then the signal can be reformed, or a new signal created, which again has the level originally sent.

Representing the signal by certain discrete allowed levels only is called *quantizing*. It inherently introduces an initial error in the amplitude of the samples, giving rise to *quantization noise*. But once the signal is in a quantized state, it can be relayed for any distance without further loss in quality, provided only that the added noise in the signal received at each repeater is not too great to prevent correct recognition of the particular level each given signal is intended to represent. By quantizing we limit our "alphabet." If the received signal lies between a and b, and is closer (say) to b, we guess that b was sent. If the noise is small enough, we shall always be right.

* Decimal classification: R148.6. Original manuscript received by the Institute, May 24, 1948.

† Bell Telephone Laboratories, Inc., New York, N. Y.

[1] W. M. Goodall, "Telephony by pulse code modulation," *Bell Sys. Tech. Jour.*, vol. 26, pp. 395–409; July, 1947.
[2] D. D. Grieg, "Pulse count modulation system," *Tele-Tech.*, vol. 6, pp. 48–52; September, 1947.
[3] D. D. Grieg, "Pulse count modulation," *Elec. Commun.*, vol. 24, pp. 287–296; September, 1947.
[4] H. S. Black and J. O. Edson, "PCM equipment," *Elec. Eng.*, vol. 66, pp. 1123–25; November, 1947.
[5] A. C. Clavier, D. D. Grieg, and P. F. Panter, "PCM distortion analysis," *Elec. Eng.*, vol. 66, pp. 1110–1122; November, 1947.
[6] L. A. Meacham and E. Peterson, "An experimental multichannel pulse code modulation system of toll quality," *Bell Sys. Tech. Jour.*, vol. 27, pp. 1–43; January, 1948.

Coding

A quantized sample could be sent as a single pulse which would have certain possible discrete amplitudes, or certain discrete positions with respect to a reference position. However, if many allowed sample amplitudes are required, one hundred, for example, it would be difficult to make circuits to distinguish these one from another. On the other hand, it is very easy to make a circuit which will tell whether or not a pulse is present. Suppose, then, that several pulses are used as a *code group* to describe the amplitude of a single sample. Each pulse can be on (1) or off (0). If we have three pulses, for instance, we can have the combinations representing the amplitudes shown in Table I.

TABLE I

Amplitude Represented	Code
0	000
1	001
2	010
3	011
4	100
5	101
6	110
7	111

The codes are, in fact, just the numbers (amplitudes) at the left written in binary notation. In this notation, the place-values are 1, 2, 4, 8,—; i.e., a unit in the right-hand column represents 1, a unit in the middle (second) column represents 2, a unit in the left (third) column represents 4, etc. We see that with a code group of n on-off pulses we can represent 2^n amplitudes. For example, 7 pulses yield 128 sample levels.

It is possible, of course, to code the amplitude in terms of a number of pulses which have allowed amplitudes of 0, 1, 2 (base 3 or ternary code), or 0, 1, 2, 3 (base 4 or quaternary code), etc., instead of the pulses with allowed amplitudes 0, 1 (base 2 or binary code). If ten levels were allowed for each pulse, then each pulse in a code group would be simply a digit of an ordinary decimal number expressing the amplitude of the sample. If n is the number of pulses and b is the base, the number of quantizing levels the code can express is b^n.

Decoding

To decode a code group of the type just described, one must generate a pulse which is the linear sum of all the pulses in the group, each multiplied by its place value $(1, b, b^2, b^3, \ldots)$ in the code. This can be done in a number of ways. Perhaps the simplest way which has been used involves sending the code group in "reverse" order, i.e., the "units" pulse first, and the pulse with the highest place value last. The pulses are then stored as charge on a capacitor-resistor combination with a time constant such that the charge decreases by the factor $1/b$ between pulses. After the last pulse, the charge (voltage) is sampled.

A Complete PCM System

A PCM system embodies all the processes just described. The input signal is band-limited to exclude any frequencies greater than W_0. This signal is then sampled at the rate $2W_0$. The samples are then quantized and encoded. Since only certain discrete code groups are possible, the selection of the nearest code group automatically quantizes the sample, and with certain types of devices it is therefore not necessary to quantize as a separate, prior operation. The code groups are then transmitted, either as a time sequence of pulses (time division) over the same channel, or by frequency division, or over separate channels. The code groups are regenerated (i.e., reshaped) at intervals as required. At the receiver the (regenerated) code groups are decoded to form a series of impulses proportional to the original samples (except quantized), and these impulses are sent through a low-pass filter of bandwidth W_0 to recover the signal wave.

II. Transmission Requirements for PCM

Suppose we consider what requirements exist, ideally, on the channel which is to carry the encoded PCM signal; that is, ruling out physically impossible devices, but allowing ideal components such as ideal filters, ideal gates, etc.

Bandwidth

If a channel has a bandwidth W cps, it is possible to send up to $2W$ independent pulses per second over it. We can show this very simply. Let the pulses occur (or not occur) at the time $t=0, \tau, 2\tau, \cdots, m\tau$ where $\tau = 1/2W$, and let each pulse as received be of the form

$$V = V_0 \frac{\sin \frac{\pi}{\tau}(t - m\tau)}{\frac{\pi}{\tau}(t - m\tau)}. \qquad (1)$$

The shape of this pulse is shown in Fig. 1. It will be seen that the pulse centered at time $m\tau$ will be zero at $t=k\tau$

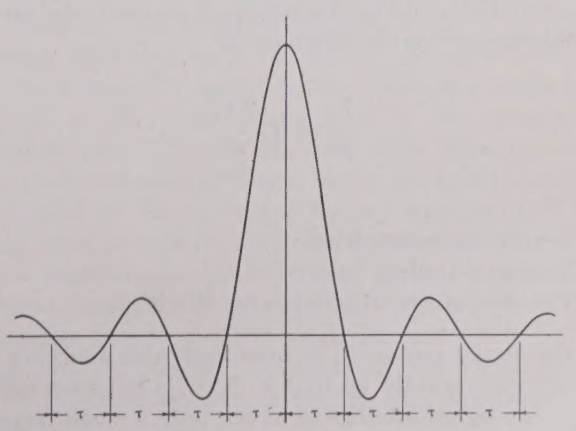

Fig. 1—Pulse of the form $V_0 \frac{\sin(\pi t/\tau)}{\pi t/\tau}$.

where $k \neq m$. Thus, if we sample the pulse train at the time $t = m\tau$, we will see only the pulse belonging to that time and none of the others.

Further, the pulse given by (1) contains no frequencies higher than W. It is the pulse one would get out of an ideal low-pass filter of cutoff W, on applying a very short impulse to the input.

Now, to send a signal of bandwidth W_0 by *PCM*, we must send $2W_0$ code groups per second and each code group contains (say) n pulse places. We must be prepared, therefore, to send $2nW_0$ pulses per second, and this requires a bandwidth $W = nW_0$. The pulses may be sent in time sequence over one channel or by frequency division. In either case the total bandwidth will be the same. Of course, if double-sideband transmission is used in the frequency-division case, or if the time-division signal is sent as double-sideband rf pulses, the total bandwidth will be $2nW_0$.

In short, the bandwidth required for PCM is, in the ideal case, n times as great as that required for direct transmission of the signal, where n is the number of pulses per code group.

Threshold Power

To detect the presence or absence of a pulse reliably requires a certain signal-to-noise ratio. If the pulse power is too low compared to the noise, even the best possible detector will make mistakes and indicate an occasional pulse when there is none, or vice versa. Let us assume that we have an ideal detector, i.e., one which makes the fewest possible mistakes. If the received pulses are of the form (1), and if the noise is "white" noise (i.e., noise with a uniform power spectrum and gaussian amplitude distribution as, for example, thermal noise), ideal detection could be achieved by passing the signal through an ideal low-pass filter of bandwidth W ($= nW_0$ in the ideal case) and sampling the output at the pulse times $k\tau$. If the signal when sampled exceeds $V_0/2$, we say a pulse is present; if less than $V_0/2$, we say there is no pulse. The result will be in error if the noise at that instant exceeds $V_0/2$ in the right direction. With gaussian noise, the probability of this happening is proportional to the complementary error function[7] of

$$\frac{V_0}{2\sigma} = \sqrt{\frac{P_s}{4N}}$$

where

σ = rms noise amplitude
P_s = signal (pulse) "power" = V_0^2
N = noise power in bandwidth $W = \sigma^2$.

As the signal power P_s is increased, this function decreases very rapidly, so that if P_s/N is large enough to make the signal intelligible at all, only a small increase will make the transmission nearly perfect. An idea of how rapidly this improvement occurs may be had from Table II. The last column in the table assumes a pulse rate of 10^5 per second.

TABLE II

Signal to Noise $\frac{P_s}{N}$	Probability of Error	This Is About One Error Every
13.3 db	10^{-2}	10^{-3} sec
17.4 db	10^{-4}	10^{-1} sec
19.6 db	10^{-6}	10 sec
21.0 db	10^{-8}	20 min
22.0 db	10^{-10}	1 day
23.0 db	10^{-12}	3 months

Clearly, there is a fairly definite *threshold* (at about 20 db, say) below which the interference is serious, and above which the interference is negligible. Comparing this figure of 20 db with the 60- to 70-odd db required for high-quality straight AM transmission of speech, it will be seen that PCM requires much less signal power, even though the noise power is increased by the n-fold increase in bandwidth.

The above discussion has assumed an on-off (base 2) system. In this system pulses will be present half the time, on the average, and the *average* signal power[8] will be $P_s/2$. If a balanced base 2 system were used, i.e., one in which 1 is sent as a + pulse (say) and 0 as a − pulse, the peak-to-peak signal swing would have to be the same as in the on-off system for the same noise margin, and this swing would be provided by pulses of only half the former amplitude. Since either a + or − pulse would always be present, the signal power would be $P_s/4$.

If pulses are used which have b different amplitude levels (i.e., a base b system), then a certain amplitude separation must exist between the adjacent levels to provide adequate noise margin. Call this separation $K\sigma$ where K = a constant. (From the preceding discussion we see that K is about 10.) The total amplitude range is therefore $K\sigma(b-1)$. The signal power will be least if this amplitude range is symmetrical about zero, i.e., from $-K\sigma(b-1)/2$ to $+K\sigma(b-1)/2$. The average signal power S, assuming all levels to be equally likely, is then[8]

$$S = K^2\sigma^2 \frac{b^2-1}{12}$$

$$= K^2 N \frac{b^2-1}{12}. \qquad (2)$$

It will be noticed that the required signal power increases rapidly with the base b.

Regeneration: The Pay-Off

In most transmission systems, the noise and distortion from the individual links cumulate. For a given

[7] Complementary error function of $x = 1/\sqrt{2\pi}\int_x^\infty e^{-\lambda^2/2}d\lambda$.

[8] See Appendix II.

quality of over-all transmission, the longer the system, the more severe are the requirements on each link. For example, if 100 links are to be used in tandem, the noise power added per link can only be one-hundredth as great as would be permissible in a single link.

Because the signal in a PCM system can be regenerated as often as necessary, the effects of amplitude and phase and nonlinear distortions in one link, if not too great, produce no effect whatever on the regenerated input signal to the next link. If noise in a single link causes a certain fraction p of the pulses to be regenerated incorrectly, then after m links, if $p \ll 1$, the fraction incorrect will be approximately mp. However, to reduce p to a value $p' = p/m$ requires only a slight increase in the power in each link, as we have seen in the section on threshold power. Practically, then, the transmission requirements for a PCM link are almost independent of the total length of the system. The importance of this fact can hardly be overstated.

III. Performance of a PCM System

We have seen that PCM requires more bandwidth and less power than is required with direct transmission of the signal itself, or with straight AM. We have, in a sense, exchanged bandwidth for power. Has the exchange been an efficient one? Are good signal-to-noise ratios in the recovered signal feasible in PCM? And how sensitive to interference is PCM? We shall now try to answer these questions.

Channel Capacity

A good measure of the bandwidth efficiency is the information capacity of the system as compared with the theoretical limit for a channel of the same bandwidth and power. The information capacity of a system may be thought of as the number of independent symbols or characters which can be transmitted without error in unit time. The simplest, most elementary character is a binary digit, and it is convenient to express the information capacity as the equivalent number of binary digits per second, C, which the channel can handle. Shannon and others have shown that an ideal system has the capacity[9]

$$C = W \log_2\left(1 + \frac{P}{N}\right) \tag{3}$$

where

W = bandwidth
P = average signal power
N = white noise power.

Two channels having the same C have the same capacity for transmitting information, even though the quantities W, P, and N may be different.

In a PCM system, operating over the threshold so that the frequency of errors is negligible,

$$C = sm$$

where

s = sampling rate $= 2W_0$
m = equivalent number of binary digits per code group.

If there are l quantizing levels, the number of binary digits required per code group is given by $l = 2^m$, while the actual number of (base b) digits n will be given by

$$l = b^n.$$

Thus,

$$2^m = b^n$$

$$m = n \log_2 b$$

and

$$C = sn \log_2 b.$$

Now sn is the actual pulse frequency, and is ideally twice the system bandwidth W.
Therefore,

$$C = 2W \log_2 b$$

$$= W \log_2 b^2.$$

Substituting for b the power required for this base (from (2)), we have

$$C = W \log_2\left(1 + \frac{12S}{K^2N}\right). \tag{4}$$

Comparing (4) with (3), we see they are identical if $S = (K^2/12)P$. In other words, PCM requires $K^2/12$ (or about 8) times the power theoretically required to realize a given channel capacity for a given bandwidth.

Perhaps the most important thing to notice about (4) is that the form is right. Power and bandwidth are exchanged on a logarithmic basis, and the channel capacity is proportional[10] to W. In most broadband systems, which improve signal-to-noise ratio at the expense of bandwidth, C is proportional only to log W.

Signal-to-Noise Ratio

There are two types of noise introduced by a PCM system. One of these is the quantizing noise mentioned in the section on quantization. This is a noise introduced at the transmitting end of the system and nowhere else. The other is *false pulse* noise caused by the incorrect interpretation of the intended amplitude of a pulse by the receiver or by any repeater. This noise may arise anywhere along the system, and is cumulative. However, as we have seen earlier, this noise decreases so rapidly as the signal power is increased above threshold that in any practical system it would be made negligible by design. As a result, the signal-to-noise ratio in PCM systems is set by the quantizing noise alone.

[9] C. E. Shannon, "A mathematical theory of communication," *Bell Sys. Tech. Jour.*, vol. 27, July, October, 1948.

[10] Provided S is increased in proportion to W to compensate for the similar increase in N.

If the signal is large compared with a single quantizing step, the errors introduced in successive samples by quantizing will be substantially uncorrelated. The maximum error which can be introduced is one-half of one quantizing step in either direction. All values of error up to this maximum value are equally likely. The rms error introduced is, therefore, $1/2\sqrt{3}$ times the height of a single quantizing step.[8] When the signal is reconstructed from the decoded samples (containing this quantizing error), what is obtained is the original signal plus a noise having a uniform frequency spectrum out to W_0 and an rms amplitude of $1/2\sqrt{3}$ times a quantizing step height. The ratio of peak-to-peak signal to rms noise is, therefore,

$$R = 2\sqrt{3}\, b^n,$$

since b^n is the number of levels. Expressing this ratio in db, we have

$$\begin{aligned} 20 \log_{10} R &= 20 \log_{10} 2\sqrt{3} + n(20 \log_{10} b) \\ &= 10.8 + n(20 \log_{10} b). \end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

In a binary system, $b=2$, and

$$20 \log_{10} R \cong 10.8 + 6n.$$

In examining (5) let us remember that n, the number of digits, is a factor relating the *total bandwidth used in transmission* to the *bandwidth of the signal to be transmitted*, i.e., $W=nW_0$. It is something like the index of modulation in FM. Now, for every increment of W_0 added to the bandwidth used for transmission, n may be increased by one, and this increases the signal-to-noise ratio by a constant number of db. In other words, in PCM, *the signal-to-noise ratio in db varies linearly with* the number of digits per code group, and hence with the *bandwidth*. Of course, as the bandwidth is increased the noise power increases, and a proportional increase in signal power is required to stay adequately above threshold.

A binary PCM system using ten times the bandwidth of the original signal will give a 70-db signal-to-noise ratio. Higher base systems will require less bandwidth.

Ruggedness

One important characteristic of a transmission system is its susceptibility to interference. We have seen that noise in a PCM circuit produces no effect unless the peak amplitude is greater than half the separation between pulse levels. In a binary (on-off) system, this is half the pulse height. Similarly, interference such as stray impulses, or pulse crosstalk from a near-by channel, will produce no effect unless the peak amplitude of this interference plus the peak noise is half the pulse height. The presence of interference thus increases the threshold required for satisfactory operation. But, if an adequate margin over threshold is provided, comparatively large amounts of interference can be present without affecting the performance of the circuit at all. A PCM system, particularly an on-off (binary) system, is therefore quite "rugged."

When a number of radio communication routes must converge on a single terminal, or follow similar routes between cities, the ruggedness of the channels is a particularly important consideration. If the susceptibility of the channels to mutual interference is high, many separate frequency bands will be required, and the total bandwidth required for the service will be large. Although PCM requires an initial increase of bandwidth for each channel, the resulting ruggedness permits many routes originating from, or converging toward, a single terminal to occupy the same frequency band. Different planes of polarization for two channels over the same path can often be used, and the directivities of practical antennas are such that only a small difference in direction of arrival will separate two routes on the same frequency. As a result, the frequency occupancy of PCM is exceptionally good, and its other transmission advantages are then obtained with little, if any, increase in *total* bandwidth.

IV. Comparison of PCM and FM

One feature of PCM is that the signal-to-noise ratio can be substantially improved by increasing the transmission bandwidth. This is an advantage shared with certain other pulse systems and with FM. As FM is the best known of these other systems, it is interesting to compare PCM and FM.

Broadband Gain

In going to high-deviation FM, the gain in signal-to-noise voltage ratio over AM (with the same power and the same noise per unit bandwidth) is proportional to the deviation ratio, or to the ratio of half the bandwidth actually used in transmission to the bandwidth of the signal to be transmitted. This ratio corresponds to n in our notation. If noise power is uniformly distributed with respect to frequency, and if one desires to provide the same margin over threshold in FM with various bandwidths, the transmitter power must be proportional to bandwidth (to n). If we so vary the power in varying the bandwidth of wide-deviation FM, the signal-to-noise voltage ratio will vary as $n(n^{1/2})$, where the factor $n^{1/2}$ comes about through the increased signal voltage. Thus the signal-to-noise ratio R will be given by

$$\begin{aligned} R &= (\text{const})n^{3/2} \\ 20 \log_{10} R &= 30 \log_{10} n + \text{const.} \end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

For binary (on-off) PCM we have, from (5), for the same simultaneous variation of bandwidth and power

$$20 \log_{10} R = 6n + 10.8.$$

Or, for ternary (base 3) PCM,

$$20 \log_{10} R = 9.54n + 10.8.$$

We see that, as the bandwidth (proportional to n) is increased in FM, the signal-to-noise ratio varies as log n, while in PCM it varies as n. Thus, as bandwidth is increased, PCM is bound to exhibit more improvement in the end. Further, a more elaborate analysis shows that, ideally at least, PCM can provide, for any bandwidth, nearly as high a signal-to-noise ratio as is possible with any system of modulation.

Why is PCM so good in utilizing bandwidth to increase the signal-to-noise ratio? A very clear picture of the reason can be had by considering a simple PCM system in which four binary digits are transmitted on four adjacent frequency bands with powers just sufficient to over-ride noise. In Fig. 2(a) the signals in these four channels B_1, B_2, B_3, B_4 are shown versus time. A black rectangle represents a pulse; a white rectangle, the absence of a pulse. The rectangles are $\tau_0 = (1/2W_0)$ long. The particular sequence of code groups shown in the figure represents a quantized approximation to a linear change of amplitude with time, as shown in Fig. 2(b).

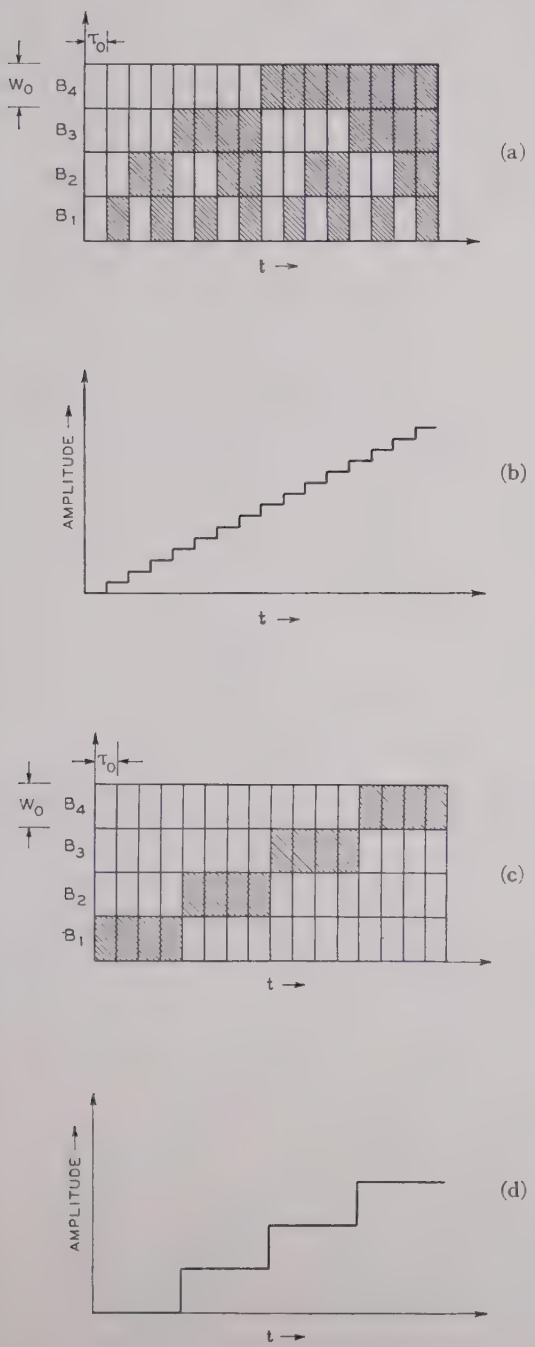

Fig. 2—The signals in channels B_1, B_2, B_3, and B_4. (a) Signal in a frequency-division PCM system. (b) Amplitudes corresponding to (a). (c) Signal in a quantized FM system. (d) Amplitudes corresponding to (c).

Now suppose, instead, that we confine ourselves to sending a pulse in only one channel at a time, as shown in Fig. 2(c). The best quantized representation of the signal we can get is shown in Fig. 2(d). Here the number of levels is four, while in Fig. 2(b) there are sixteen. In other words, Fig. 2(b) represents four times as good a signal-to-noise amplitude ratio as Fig. 2(d).

The total energy transmitted is in each case represented by the total black area; we see that on the average twice as much power is used in Fig. 2(a) as in Fig. 2(c). Thus we obtain a 12-db increase in signal-to-noise ratio with a power increase of only 3 db by sending the signal according to Fig. 2(a) rather than Fig. 2(c). If we had started out with six channels instead of four, we would have obtained a signal-to-noise improvement of 21 db for 4.77 db more average power. The greater the number of channels, and hence the wider the frequency band used, the better the method of transmission represented by Fig. 2(a) as compared to that represented by Fig. 2(c).

Now Fig. 2(a) represents PCM, while Fig. 2(c) represents what is essentially quantized FM with sampling. The signal in Fig. 2(c) varies with frequency according to the amplitude of the signal. Hence, we have compared PCM and a sort of FM, to the obvious advantage of PCM.

The trouble with the FM type of signal of Fig. 2(c) is that only a few of the possible signals which might be sent in the four bands B_1–B_4 are ever produced; all the others, those for which there is a signal in more than one band at a time, are wasted. Ideally, PCM takes advantage of every possible signal which can be transmitted over a given band of frequencies with pulses having discrete amplitudes.[11]

The relation between FM and PCM is closely analogous to the relation between the two types of computing machines: the so-called analogue machines and the digital machines. In analogue machines the numbers involved are represented as proportional to some physical quantity capable of continuous variation. Typical examples are the slide rule, network analyzers, and the differential analyzer. An increase in precision requires,

[11] It might be objected that one could have signals with a finer structure in the frequency direction than those shown in Fig. 2(a). This is possible only if τ is made larger, so that the pulses representing samples occur less frequently, are broader, and have narrower spectra. This means reducing W_0.

in general, a proportional increase in the range of physical variables used to represent the numbers. Furthermore, small errors tend to accumulate and cannot be eliminated. In digital machines the numbers are expressed in digital form, and the digits are represented by the states of certain physical parts of the machine which can assume one of a finite set of possible states. Typical digital machines are the abacus, ordinary desk computers, and the Eniac. In this type of machine the precision increases exponentially with the number of digits, and hence with the size of the machine. Small errors, which are not large enough to carry any part from one state to another state, have no effect and do not cumulate.

In FM (analogue), the amplitude of the audio signal is measured by the radio frequency. To improve the precision by 2 to 1 requires roughly a 2 to 1 increase in the frequency swing, and hence the bandwidth. In PCM doubling the bandwidth permits twice the number of digits, and therefore *squares* rather than doubles the number of distinguishable levels.

Other Factors

There are other considerations in a comparison between PCM and ordinary, unquantized FM, however. For instance, PCM allows the use of regenerative repeaters, and FM does not. PCM lends itself, like other pulse systems, to time-division multiplex. On the other hand, when the received signal rises considerably above threshold during good reception, the signal-to-noise ratio improves with FM but not with PCM. When we come to consider transmitters and receivers, we find that, for high signal-to-noise ratios at least, an FM transmitter and receiver will be somewhat less complicated than those for PCM are at present.

V. Conclusions

PCM offers a greater improvement in signal-to-noise than other systems, such as FM, which also depend upon the use of wide bands.

By using binary (on-off) PCM, a high-quality signal can be obtained under conditions of noise and interference so bad that it is just possible to recognize the presence of each pulse. Further, by using regenerative repeaters which detect the presence or absence of pulses and then emit reshaped, respaced pulses, the initial signal-to-noise ratio can be maintained through a long chain of repeaters.

PCM lends itself to time-division multiplex.

PCM offers no improvement in signal-to-noise ratio during periods of high signal or low noise.

PCM transmitters and receivers are somewhat more complex than are those used for some other forms of modulation.

In all, PCM seems ideally suited for multiplex message circuits, where a standard quality and high reliability are required.

Appendix I

We wish to show that a function of time $f(t)$ which contains no frequency components greater than W_0 cps is uniquely determined by the values of $f(t)$ at any set of sampling points spaced $1/2W_0$ seconds apart. Let $F(\omega)$ be the complex spectrum of the function, i.e.,

$$F(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-i\omega t} f(t)dt.$$

By assumption, $F(\omega) = 0$ for $|\omega| > 2\pi W_0$. $F(\omega)$ can be expanded in the interval $-2\pi W_0$ to $+2\pi W_0$ in a Fourier series having the coefficients

$$a_n = \frac{1}{4\pi W_0} \int_{-2\pi W_0}^{2\pi W_0} F(\omega) e^{-i(\omega n/2W_0)} d\omega. \tag{1}$$

Now, since $F(\omega)$ is the Fourier transform of $f(t)$, $f(t)$ is the inverse transform of $F(\omega)$.

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(\omega) e^{i\omega t} d\omega$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-2\pi W_0}^{2\pi W_0} F(\omega) e^{i\omega t} d\omega,$$

since $F(\omega)$ is zero outside these limits.

If we let $t = n/2W_0$, we have

$$f\left(\frac{n}{2W_0}\right) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-2\pi W_0}^{2\pi W_0} F(\omega) e^{i(\omega n/2W_0)} d\omega. \tag{2}$$

Comparing (1) and (2), we see that

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2W_0} f\left(\frac{-n}{2W_0}\right).$$

Thus, if the function $f(t)$ is known at the sampling points, $\cdots -(2/2W_0),\ 1/2W_0,\ 0,\ 1/2W_0,\ 2/2W_0 \cdots$, then the coefficients a_n are determined. These coefficients determine the spectrum $F(\omega)$ and $F(\omega)$ determines $f(t)$ for all values of t. This shows that there is exactly one function containing no frequencies over W_0 and passing through a given set of amplitudes at sampling points $1/2W_0$ apart.

To reconstruct the function, given these amplitudes, we note that

$$F(\omega) = \sum_n a_n e^{i(\omega n/2W_0)} \quad \text{for } |\omega| < 2\pi W_0$$

$$F(\omega) = 0 \qquad \text{for } |\omega| > 2\pi W_0.$$

Taking the inverse transform, we have

$$f(t) = 2W_0 \sum_n a_n \frac{\sin \pi(2W_0 t + n)}{\pi(2W_0 t + n)}$$

$$= \sum_n f\left(-\frac{n}{2W_0}\right) \frac{\sin \pi(2W_0 t + n)}{\pi(2W_0 t + n)}$$

$$= \sum_n f\left(\frac{n}{2W_0}\right) \frac{\sin \pi(2W_0 t - n)}{\pi(2W_0 t - n)}.$$

In other words, the function $f(t)$ may be thought of as the sum of a series of elementary functions of the form $\sin x/x$ centered at the sampling points, and each having a peak value equal to $f(t)$ at the corresponding sampling point. To reconstruct the function $f(t)$, then, we merely need to generate a series of $\sin x/x$ pulses proportional to the samples and add the ensemble.

Appendix II

We wish to find the average power in a series of pulses of the form

$$f(t) = \frac{\sin \pi \dfrac{t}{\tau}}{\pi \dfrac{t}{\tau}}$$

occurring at the regular rate $1/\tau$.

The signal wave may then be written

$$v(t) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} V_k f(t - k\tau)$$

where V_k = peak amplitude of pulse occurring at the time $t = k\tau$. The average "power" (i.e., mean-square amplitude) S of the signal will then be

$$S = \overline{v^2} = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{n\tau} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} v^2(t)\,dt$$

$$= \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{n\tau} \left[\sum_{k=1}^{n} V_k^2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f^2(t - k\tau)\,dt + \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} V_j V_k \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t - j\tau) f(t - k\tau)\,dt \right]_{j\neq k}.$$

For the assumed pulse shape, the first integral is equal to τ, while the second integral is equal to zero. Thus

$$S = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} V_k^2.$$

S is simply the mean-square value of the individual pulse peak amplitudes, and may also be written

$$S = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} V^2 p(V)\,dV$$

where

$p(V)\,dV$ = probability that pulse amplitude lies between V and $V + dV$.

Suppose the pulses have b discrete amplitude levels $K\sigma$ apart, ranging from 0 to $(b-1)K\sigma$. Each pulse then has an amplitude $aK\sigma$ where a is an integer. The average power will be

$$S = K^2\sigma^2 \sum_{a=0}^{a=b-1} p(a)a^2$$

where $p(a)$ = probability of level a. If all levels are equally likely, $p(a) = 1/b$, and

$$S = K^2\sigma^2 \frac{1}{b} \sum_{0}^{b-1} a^2$$

$$S = K^2\sigma^2 \frac{(b-1)(2b-1)}{6}.$$

The quantity

$$\frac{1}{b} \sum_{0}^{b-1} a^2$$

is the square of the radius of gyration (i.e., the mean-square radius) about one end of a linear array of b points separated by unit distance. The average power of any amplitude distribution is the average of the squares of the amplitudes and is therefore proportional to the square of the radius of gyration of the distribution. The radius of gyration about any point is

$$r^2 = r_0^2 + d^2$$

where

r = radius of gyration about chosen point
r_0 = radius of gyration about center of gravity
d = distance to center of gravity from chosen point.

Obviously, $r_0 < r$, so that the average power will be least if the average amplitude is zero. S will be least if the pulse amplitude range is from $-K\sigma(b-1)/2$ to $+K\sigma(b-1)/2$, and will then be given by

$$S = K^2\sigma^2 \left[\frac{(b-1)(2b-1)}{6} - \left(\frac{b-1}{2} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$S = K^2\sigma^2 \frac{b^2 - 1}{12}.$$

This may also be written

$$S = \frac{A^2}{12} \frac{(b+1)}{(b-1)}$$

where A = total amplitude range $= (b-1)K\sigma$. As $b \to \infty$,

$$S \to \frac{A^2}{12}.$$

Thus, if all amplitude levels in a range A are possible and equally likely, the rms amplitude of the distribution will be $\sqrt{S} = (A/2\sqrt{3})$.

Pentriode Amplifiers*

H. M. ZEIDLER†, MEMBER, IRE, AND J. D. NOE‡, STUDENT, IRE

Summary—Conventional video-amplifier design is complicated by low-frequency phase shift and degenerative decrease in gain caused by inefficient screen-grid and cathode by-pass circuits. This paper describes two amplifier circuits in which phase shift and degeneration in those by-pass circuits may be eliminated throughout the entire range to zero frequency. Small paper or mica capacitors may be substituted for bulky electrolytic units, with consequent improvement in electrical and physical amplifier characteristics.

These circuits are applicable to amplifiers with stage gains less than the control-grid to screen-grid amplification factor of the tube. Inasmuch as common tubes have factors ranging from approximately 10 to 50, the circuits described are primarily applicable to video amplifiers. In practice, the interstage circuits are designed in accordance with conventional methods involving either two-terminal or four-terminal networks. The by-pass circuits herein described may then be incorporated into the design to provide the advantages outlined above with no loss in stage gain.

I. Introduction

THE DESIGN of screen and cathode by-pass circuits for conventional video amplifiers is influenced by conflicting requirements. From the standpoint of physical size and cost, it is desirable to use the smallest by-pass capacitors allowable. Considerations of circuit performance, however, dictate large values of capacitance in order that adequate screen and cathode by-passing be assured at very low frequencies. This is particularly true in amplifiers in which negative feedback is utilized around a loop containing several stages, in which case it may be necessary to by-pass some, or all, of the screen and cathode circuits to a frequency so low that they exert negligible influence on the feedback-loop cutoff characteristics.

This paper describes two circuits, known as "pentriode circuits," which circumvent this conflict in design criteria.[1] Both circuits eliminate the gain decrease and phase shift associated with insufficient by-pass, and furthermore allow use of small by-pass capacitors. The idea fundamental to these circuits is simple. At low frequencies for which the by-pass circuits begin to be ineffective in the conventional sense, additional plate impedance is introduced to compensate for the decrease in signal current due to screen and cathode degeneration. This compensation can be made exact, leaving no net gain variation or phase shift in the transition region.

It should be noted that the terms "amplitude response" and "phase shift" are used in this paper with reference only to the effect of screen and cathode by-pass circuits. The over-all gain will, of course, drop off at low frequencies due to the interstage coupling capacitor, and at the high frequencies due to shunting capacitances, but these considerations are independent of the circuit configurations herein described.

* Decimal classification: R363.4. Original manuscript received by the Institute, November 24, 1947; revised manuscript received, July 6, 1948.

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[1] U. S. Patent Application Nos. 789,153 and 789,282.

II. The Type-I Pentriode Amplifier

The basic circuit of the type-I amplifier is indicated in Fig. 1. At high frequencies, where C_2 can be considered a short circuit, the amplifier operates in normal pentode fashion. There is no high-frequency degeneration in R_k or in R_2, since all plate and screen signal currents are returned directly to the cathode through C_2. At low frequencies, the signal currents must return to the cathode through R_2, the power supply, and the cathode resistor R_k because of the high reactance of C_2. Both screen and cathode degeneration are thereby introduced, with a consequent decrease in signal current. However, if R_2 is made to provide a sufficient increase of effective load resistance in excess of the value R_1, it is possible to compensate exactly the degenerative effect. In this manner the low-frequency gain can be made equal to the high-frequency gain, which condition further specifies that there shall be zero phase shift at low frequencies relative to high frequencies.[2] This concept is extended by a more comprehensive analysis in Section III. This analysis shows that the gain and phase characteristics of the amplifier can be made invariant at all frequencies—even at those intermediate frequencies where the capacitor C_2 is only partially effective in bypassing plate and screen circuits directly to the cathode.

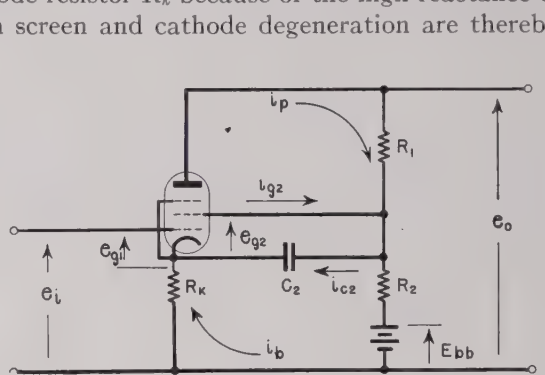


Fig. 1—Basic circuit—type I-amplifier.

The tube of the circuit discussed above operates in an unorthodox manner at low frequencies. Since the screen grid at the junction of R_1 and R_2 is neither at ground nor at plate potential at low frequencies, the tube operates as neither pentode nor triode in the true sense of the words. Hence, the name "pentriode" has been applied. The transition between pentriode and pentode operation occurs in an intermediate frequency range

[2] H. W. Bode, "Network Analysis and Feedback Amplifier Design," D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., New York, N. Y., 1945; pp. 286–288.

where the by-pass capacitor can be considered neither a short nor an open circuit, and that intermediate range shall hereafter be termed the "crossover" region.

The basic features of the pentriode amplifier are enumerated briefly below:

1. When the design criteria are fulfilled, there can be no phase shifts due to screen and cathode by-pass elements at any frequency. This is particularly advantageous when the circuits are to be used within a negative-feedback loop containing two or more stages. Elimination of these phase shifts leaves only the interstage blocking capacitors and grid resistances to control the low-frequency cutoff characteristic, and low-frequency stability is thus more easily attained.

2. The capacitor C_2 need be only large enough to assure full pentode operation at high frequencies where the undesirable effects due to tube and stray capacitances would otherwise be intolerable. For normal video amplifiers, C_2 is specified to be only 0.01 μf or less, the crossover to full pentode operation being achieved for frequencies higher than approximately 0.1 Mc.

3. Use of the pentriode amplifier involves *no loss in gain* compared to more conventional circuits. However, it is shown in Section VI that pentriode circuits cannot be used where the stage gain is greater than the control-grid to screen-grid amplification factor of the tube. They consequently apply primarily to video amplifiers.

4. Degeneration is introduced in the cathode and/or screen-grid circuits at frequencies below the crossover region. In certain applications this may be advantageous, as it provides increased gain stability and decreased distortion at these low frequencies.

These features apply fundamentally not only to the type-I but also to the type-II pentriode circuit which is discussed in Section IV. In either case, however, variations in gain and phase occur in the crossover region if the design criteria are not satisfied exactly. These variations are considered in Sections V and VI.

III. Derivation of the Design Equation, Type-I Pentriode Amplifier

The symbols and assumptions specified below apply throughout the entire paper. It should be noted that all electrode signal voltages are specified as positive with respect to the cathode, and that all signal currents are electron currents flowing away from the cathode inside the tube.

1. *Symbols*

e_{g1} = cathode to control-grid signal voltage
e_{g2} = cathode to screen-grid signal voltage
e_i = input signal voltage
e_0 = output signal voltage
i_p = plate signal current
i_{g2} = screen-grid signal current
i_t = total cathode signal current
i_b = signal current flowing through the power supply
g_m = control-grid to plate transconductance

$$g_m = \left.\frac{\partial i_p}{\partial e_{g1}}\right|_{e_{g2}=0}$$

g_{12} = control-grid to screen-grid transconductance

$$g_{12} = \left.\frac{\partial i_{g2}}{\partial e_{g1}}\right|_{e_{g2}=0}$$

μ_{12} = control-grid to screen-grid amplification factor

$$\mu_{12} = \left.\frac{\partial e_{g2}}{\partial e_{g1}}\right|_{i_t=0}$$

C_{12} = control-grid to screen-grid capacitance
E_{bb} = power-supply voltage
A = magnitude of amplifier gain
$\overline{A}$ = amplifier vector gain.

2. *Assumptions*

a. The tube characteristics are linear and the tube parameters are constants.

b. Shunting of plate resistance and of external load on circuit resistances is negligible.

c. Power-supply impedance is negligible compared to circuit resistances.

d. Plate signal voltage does not influence signal current.

e. No control-grid current flows.

The qualitative discussion of Section II can be used as a basis for the derivation of the design equations of the type-I pentriode amplifier. Such a derivation proves only that the gains, and hence the phase shifts, are equal at high and low frequencies. The fact that both the gain and the phase are actually invariant at all frequencies is proved in the following more general derivation which involves calculation of the expression for the vector gain of the amplifier. The circuit diagram is that of Fig. 1.

An expression for total signal current at any frequency may be written as a function of the degenerative current i_b.

$$i_t = (g_m + g_{12})\left[(e_i - i_b R_k) + \frac{-i_b(R_2 + R_k)}{\mu_{12}}\right]. \qquad (1)$$

Furthermore, i_b may be expressed as a fractional part of i_t in terms of the relative admittances of the two paths which i_t may take at the screen-grid terminal.

$$i_b = i_t\left[\frac{\left(\frac{1}{R_2 + R_k}\right)}{\left(\frac{1}{R_2 + R_k}\right) + j\omega C_2}\right]$$

$$= i_t\left[\frac{1}{1 + j\omega C_2(R_2 + R_k)}\right]. \qquad (2)$$

Substituting (2) into (1) and collecting terms,

$$i_t = \mu_{12}(g_m + g_{12})e_i\left[\frac{1 + j\omega C_2(R_2 + R_k)}{\mu_{12} + (g_m + g_{12})R_2 + (g_m + g_{12})(\mu_{12} + 1)R_k + j\omega C_2\mu_{12}(R_2 + R_k)}\right]. \quad (3)$$

The output voltage may be written in terms of i_t, and the vector gain equation follows directly.

$$e_0 = -[i_p R_1 + i_b R_2] = -i_t\left[\frac{g_m R_1}{(g_m + g_{12})} + \frac{R_2}{1 + j\omega C_2(R_2 + R_k)}\right] \quad (4)$$

$$\overline{A}_I = -\mu_{12}\left[\frac{g_m R_1 + (g_m + g_{12})R_2}{\mu_{12} + (g_m + g_{12})R_2 + (g_m + g_{12})(\mu_{12} + 1)R_k}\right]\left[\frac{1 + j\omega\dfrac{g_m R_1 C_2(R_2 + R_k)}{(g_m + g_{12})R_2 + g_m R_1}}{1 + j\omega\dfrac{\mu_{12}C_2(R_2 + R_k)}{\mu_{12} + (g_m + g_{12})R_2 + (g_m + g_{12})(\mu_{12} + 1)R_k}}\right] \quad (5)$$

$$\overline{A}_I = -K\left[\frac{1 + jM\omega}{1 + jN\omega}\right]. \quad (6)$$

Equations (5) and (6) have been written in the basic form of the bilinear equation. It is apparent that if the circuit is so arranged that the coefficients of the frequency-variable terms are made equal, both the gain and the phase are invariant at all frequencies. The required design equation is obtained when M and N are equated, and the results rearranged to yield R_2 as a function of R_k.

$$R_2 = R_k\left[\frac{(\mu_{12} + 1)g_m R_1}{\mu_{12} - g_m R_1}\right] = R_k\left[\frac{(\mu_{12} + 1)A_I}{\mu_{12} - A_I}\right]. \quad (7)$$

Further reference to (5) and (6) reveals that the magnitude of the gain is given by the expression corresponding to the coefficient K. However, since the amplifier operates in normal pentode fashion at high frequencies, the magnitude of the gain is simply

$$A_I = [g_m R_1]. \quad (8)$$

The coefficient K is actually the expression obtained for the gain of the amplifier at low frequencies. Consequently, (7) may also be obtained by equating K to (8) and simplifying.

IV. Type-II Pentriode Amplifier

The type-II pentriode amplifier is diagramed in Fig. 2. It should be noted that the capacitance C_1 and inductance L_1 do not enter into the pentriode circuit design considerations, and are included in Fig. 2 merely to indicate the normal position of two-terminal high-frequency compensation elements. The capacitance C_{12} is a parasitic element which is discussed in Section V. This circuit is similar in operation to the type-I amplifier with the following exceptions:

1. The cathode degeneration is constant (or zero) at all frequencies. Hence, the increase in effective load resistance at frequencies below the crossover region is counteracted entirely by screen-grid degeneration in R_3 and R_4. (Refer to Section V.)

2. Since signal currents flow through the cathode resistor at all frequencies, it may be utilized as a feedback element.

3. The separate screen resistor, R_4, permits independent control of the quiescent operating voltages of the plate and screen grid. This control may be of advantage in low-frequency amplifiers where the voltage drop across R_1 is relatively large.

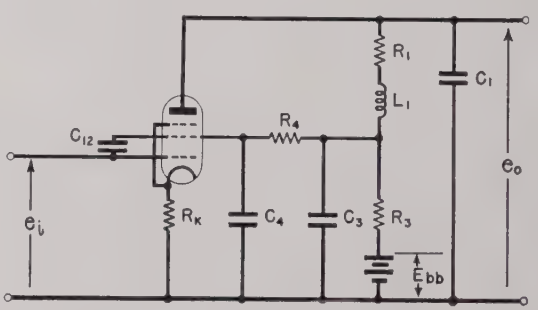


Fig. 2—Complete circuit—type-II amplifier.

The derivation of the design equations for the type-II amplifier is too lengthy for inclusion in this paper. Equation of the high- and the low-frequency gains yields a resistance design equation as with the type-I amplifier, but does not comprise the complete solution in this case. The primary difference is that the two capacitors C_3 and C_4 impose an additional restriction on the circuit if uniform response is to be achieved in the crossover region. Hence, a derivation including the frequency variable is required to yield the following two design equations:

$$R_3 = R_4\left[\frac{g_{12}}{g_m + g_{12}}\right]\left[\frac{g_m R_1}{\mu_{12} - g_m R_1 + (g_m + g_{12})(\mu_{12} + 1)R_k}\right] \quad (9)$$

$$C_4 = C_3\left[\frac{g_{12}R_1}{\mu_{12} + (g_m + g_{12})(\mu_{12} + 1)R_k}\right]. \quad (10)$$

Equation (10) does not impose any serious complication in circuit adjustment. The capacitor balance is noncritical, as is indicated in Fig. 3, where measured responses are indicated for widely different capacitor ratios.[3] As is the case with the type-I amplifier, the response is perfectly uniform at all frequencies when the design equations are satisfied. The magnitude of the gain of the type-II amplifier at high frequencies is the same as that of the conventional pentode amplifier.

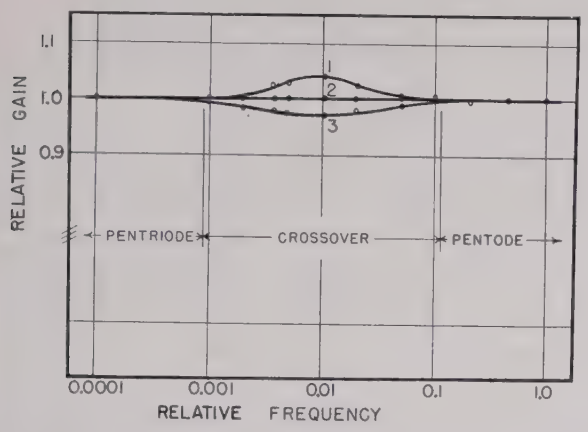


Fig. 3—Effect of improper capacitor ratio C_3/C_4—type-II amplifier, $C_3=0.005$ μf.
Curve 1—$C_3/C_4=10$.
Curve 2—$C_3/C_4=16$.
Curve 3—$C_3/C_4=20$.

$$A_{II}=\left[\frac{g_mR_1}{1+(g_m+g_{12})R_k}\right]. \tag{11}$$

V. Effect of Parasitic Capacitances

The preceding analyses have dealt only with the fundamental elements of the circuits in order that a clear understanding of the basic circuit operation might be more readily achieved. At video frequencies, however, the reactances of interelectrode and stray capacitances indicated in Fig. 4 become of the same order of magnitude as the circuit resistances, and must therefore be included in the analysis. Fortunately, the requirements imposed upon the circuit design by these capacitances are in no sense critical, so the corresponding approximate analyses deal with what may be termed "design inequalities," rather than "design equations."

The spurious effect in the type-I amplifier which is to be considered first is that associated with the stray capacitance C_1 from the plate terminal to ground. It should be noted that the capacitance C_1 includes the stray capacitance of coupling elements and the input capacitance of the following stage, as well as the plate-to-ground capacitance of the tube indicated. The reasoning of Section II was based upon the assumption that all of the plate signal current is by-passed directly to the cathode through C_2 at high frequencies, thereby assuring zero degeneration in R_2 and R_k. In the practical circuit, however, the high-frequency currents which flow through C_1 return to the cathode through the ground, thereby causing high-frequency degeneration in any impedance existing between cathode and ground. It is, therefore, necessary that the cathode resistor be by-passed *for high frequencies*, the size of the capacitor C_k being determined by the inequality

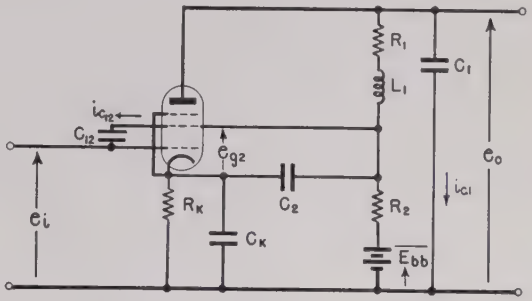


Fig. 4—Complete circuit—type-I amplifier.

$$C_k \geqq C_1\left(\frac{100}{n}\right)g_mR_1, \tag{12}$$

which is derived in Appendix I. The factor n is the maximum percentage degenerative drop in gain which may be tolerated. The type of response resulting from inadequate cathode by-pass is indicated in Fig. 5, where gain characteristics for several values of C_k are shown. (Note that high-frequency compensation was omitted in the experimental amplifier for simplification.)

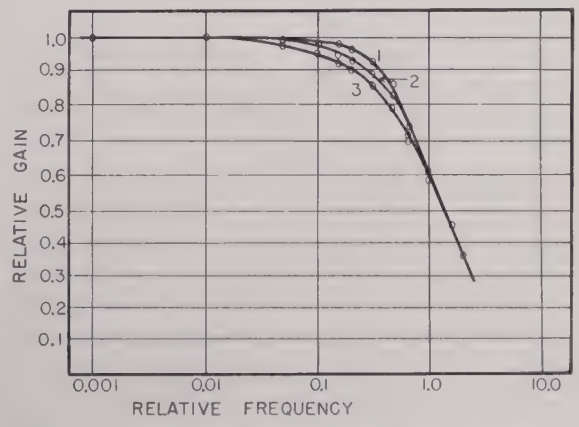


Fig. 5—Effect of insufficient ratio C_k/C_1—Type-I amplifier, $C_1=14$ $\mu\mu$f.
Curve 1—$C_k/C_1=\infty$.
Curve 2—$C_k/C_1=140$.
Curve 3—$C_k/C_1=76$.

[3] Figs. 3, 5, 6, and 7 are plotted from data obtained from circuits with the capacitance values increased 100:1. This technique permitted independent insertion of the parasitic capacitances for experimental verification of the design inequalities considered in Section V. The basic circuit parameters were: Type-I circuit—$g_m=4650$ micromhos, $g_{12}=1650$ micromhos, $\mu_{12}=31$, $R_1=1400$ ohms, $R_2=1040$ ohms, $R_k=120$ ohms, $R_x=1400$ ohms, $L_1=0$, $C_{12}=1.2$ $\mu\mu$f. Type-II circuit—$g_m=5150$ micromhos, $g_{12}=1780$ micromhos, $\mu_{12}=31$, $R_1=1400$ ohms, $R_3=390$ ohms, $R_4=6800$ ohms, $R_k=38$ ohms (with additional fixed bias). The unity point of the normalized frequency scale represents 10 Mc, but it should be noted that, in general, the crossover region bears no fixed relation to this unity frequency point.

The requirement that the cathode-to-ground impedance be minimized at high frequencies imposes a limitation on the type-I circuit application. In general the shunting action of C_k on R_k at high frequencies prevents utilizing R_k as a feedback element. In special cases, however, where the feedback resistance required is relatively small, satisfactory results are achieved by utilizing an *unby-passed* part of R_k as the feedback element.

Once the value of C_k has been specified, the requirements on C_2 may be determined. Unless C_2 is made sufficiently large so that all plate and screen currents are returned directly to the cathode through C_2 before C_k begins to by-pass the cathode resistor as the frequency is increased, the latter by-passing action improperly decreases the required degenerative function of R_k in the low-frequency region, thereby causing a hump in the frequency-response characteristic. Typical humps are illustrated in Fig. 6 for a number of values of C_2. The ap-

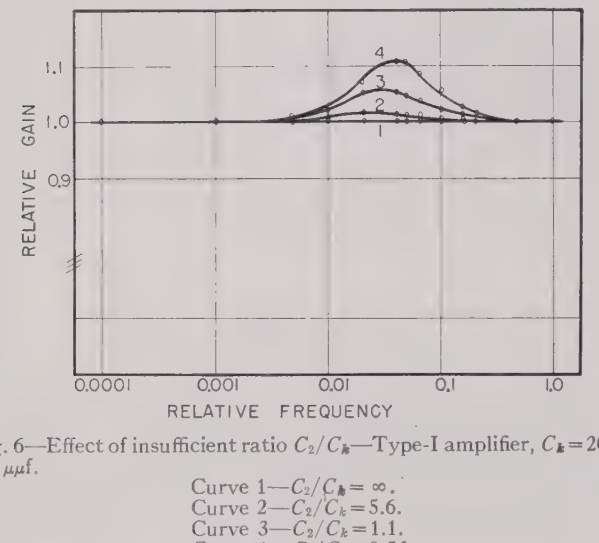


Fig. 6—Effect of insufficient ratio C_2/C_k—Type-I amplifier, $C_k = 2000$ $\mu\mu$f.

Curve 1—$C_2/C_k = \infty$.
Curve 2—$C_2/C_k = 5.6$.
Curve 3—$C_2/C_k = 1.1$.
Curve 4—$C_2/C_k = 0.56$.

proximate derivation of Appendix II yields the design inequality

$$C_2 \geqq C_k \left[\frac{100 R_k (g_m + g_{12})(\mu_{12} + g_{12} R_2)}{m \mu_{12} g_m R_1 (1 + g_m R_k)} \right] \cdot \left[\frac{\mu_{12} - g_m R_1}{\mu_{12} + (g_m + g_{12}) R_2} \right] \qquad (13)$$

where m is the maximum percentage rise in gain which may be tolerated.

An additional condition must be imposed upon the size of C_2. A considerable signal voltage exists on the screen grid at frequencies below the crossover region. This voltage[4] causes currents to flow through the inter-grid capacitance C_{12}, thereby introducing resistive and reactive loading into the input circuit. Such loading would shunt the load impedance of the preceding stage appreciably at high frequencies if C_2 were not sufficiently large, causing a decrease in gain. A relatively conventional derivation yields the design inequality

$$C_2 \geqq C_{12} \left[\frac{100(g_m + g_{12})(R_x + R_k)}{p} \right] \qquad (14)$$

as a function of the factor p, which is the maximum percentage decrease in gain which can be permitted, and of R_x, the load resistance of the preceding stage. In most practical amplifiers, inequality (13) generally specifies a much larger size for C_2 than does inequality (14). However, both should be checked for every set of design conditions, and the larger value of C_2 incorporated into the amplifier.

The type-II amplifier is less susceptible to spurious effects because the cathode resistor is unby-passed at all frequencies. The only requirement involved is that which specifies that C_4 shall be large enough to prevent excessive input-circuit conductance loading of the preceding stage. The design inequality

$$C_4 \geqq C_{12} \left[\frac{100 g_{12} R_x}{q} \right] . \qquad (15)$$

determines the requirements on C_4. The factor q is the maximum-permissible percentage decrease in gain, and R_x is the load resistance of the preceding stage. The absence of any cathode by-pass capacitor in the type-II circuit permits use of all or a fraction of R_k as a feedback element.

VI. Practical Design Considerations

This section treats the practical design considerations and limitations of both the type-I and type-II pentriode amplifiers. Examination of (7) and (9) reveals a fundamental limitation on the applicability of pentriode amplifiers. The difference terms in the denominators of those equations impose a theoretical maximum on the product $g_m R_1$ which would require infinite values of R_2 or R_3. For all practical purposes, the limit for both type-I and type-II circuits is equal to μ_{12}, the control-grid to screen-grid amplification factor of the tube. The actual maximum gain which can be attained in the practical amplifier is below this theoretical limit, as determined by the maximum supply-voltage drop across R_2 or R_3 which can be made available. Furthermore, if these resistances were to become too large, assumption number 2b, Section III, would not be valid, and it would be necessary to develop modified design equations. According to Table I, the maximum value of μ_{12} available in common tubes is of the order of fifty. The corresponding maximum practical gain would be of the order of forty or forty-five.

The type-I circuit is subject to an additional restric-

[4] F. E. Terman, "Radio Engineers' Handbook," McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., New York, N. Y., and London, 1943; pp. 467–469. The derivation in the above reference is for triodes rather than pentodes, but this circuit calls for the same type of analysis, since signal voltages exist on the screen grid.

tion on the maximum stage gain obtainable. The quiescent plate voltage is decreased below that of the screen grid by the voltage drop across R_1, and satisfactory tube operating conditions will not be attainable for excessive values of R_1. Since the type-II circuit provides independent control of plate and screen-grid quiescent voltages, it may be used to advantage in specific cases where the maximum gain obtainable with the type-I circuit would be limited by the voltage drop across R_1.

TABLE I

AVERAGE CONSTANTS FOR A NUMBER OF COMMON TUBES

Tube	$g_m(\mu\text{mhos})$	$g_{12}(\mu\text{mhos})$	μ_{12}	$C_{12}(\mu\mu\text{f})$
6AC7	9,500	2,800	50	4.1
6AG5	5,300	1,500	50	2.4
6AG7	10,000	2,600	25	4.6
6AH6	9,000	2,300	48	3.8
6AK5	4,800	1,700	30	1.2
6AK6	2,200	350	10	1.8
6AQ5	4,200	600	11	5.0
6AU6	5,000	2,000	47	1.6
6BJ6	3,500	1,400	25	1.8

Inspection of (7), (9), and (10) indicates that the relationships required for uniform amplifier response are functions not only of the load resistance R_1, but also of the tube parameters. Consequently, as the transconductances or amplification factor of a tube change from the design values with age or operating conditions, the frequency response deviates slightly from the perfectly uniform characteristic as illustrated for the type-I circuit in Fig. 7. In the high-frequency region, a 10 per

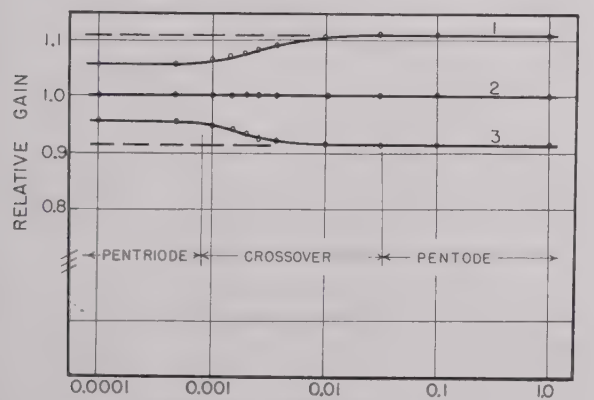


Fig. 7—Influence of deviations in tube transconductance on frequency response.
Curve 1—$g_m = 1.11$ design g_m.
Curve 2—$g_m =$ design g_m.
Curve 3—$g_m = 0.91$ design g_m.

cent change from the design value of transconductance causes a corresponding 10 per cent change in gain, since the tube operates in normal pentode fashion at those frequencies. However, at frequencies below the crossover,[5] the tube operates with screen-grid and cathode degeneration, the resultant change in gain being less than 10 per cent from the design value. For apparatus such as vacuum-tube voltmeters and other absolute indicating devices, this increased stability of gain (and decreased distortion) at low frequencies is of definite value, since it is achieved without any sacrifice in high-frequency performance. The slight gain irregularity seldom offers serious trouble in practice, because feedback, which is usually incorporated into practical units, serves to maintain uniform gain characteristics. In the event that the available feedback is not adequate to guarantee the gain uniformity required over the frequency range where the crossover region would normally occur, either of two alternatives may be utilized. First, the tubes could be selected and the power supplies regulated to maintain the design values of the tube parameters. The second technique would require the use of sufficiently large values of capacitance of C_2 or C_3 and C_4 to place the crossover region below the critical frequency range. Under these latter conditions, the amplifier tube would operate as an ordinary pentode throughout the entire frequency range of primary interest. However, pentriode operation would occur at very low frequencies, and the advantages gained by virtually zero phase shift to zero frequency would still be achieved.

The information disclosed in the preceding analyses provides complete design information. Brief summaries of suggested design procedures are tabulated in Table II to expedite the design of practical amplifiers.

TABLE II

TYPE-I CIRCUIT

1. Choose stage gain, g_mR_1.
2. If necessary, design high-frequency compensation circuits (e.g., shunt or series-peaking) in accordance with standard procedures.
3. Check the value of control-grid to screen-grid amplification factor of the tube to see if pentriode circuit can be used.
4. Choose R_k for bias.
5. Calculate R_2 from (7).
6. Determine E_{bb}.
7. Calculate C_k from (12).
8. Calculate C_2 from (13).
9. Check C_2 from (14).

TYPE-II CIRCUIT

1, 2, 3. Same as for Type-I circuit above.
4. Choose R_k for bias and/or as a feedback element.
5. Choose R_4 to give the desired operating point for the tube.
6. Calculate R_3 from (9).
7. Determine E_{bb}.
8. Calculate C_4 from (15).
9. Calculate C_3 from (10).

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors wish to express their appreciation to W. R. Hewlett for his suggestions concerning circuit analysis, and to W. H. Huggins for his assistance in checking and revising the manuscript.

APPENDIX I

Design Inequality for C_k versus C_1 (Refer to Fig. 4).

An approximate derivation for the maximum decrease in gain caused by capacitive load currents flowing

[5] A phase shift naturally accompanies the change in gain in cases where the design requirements are not exactly fulfilled. However, the gain inequalities are seldom in excess of 15 per cent in practice, and the corresponding phase-shift peak is only 6 degrees or less. The effect of such a small phase shift is generally negligible.

through C_1 and the cathode-to-ground reactance at high frequencies can be made on the basis of the following assumptions:

1. Full pentode operation is in effect. (This condition is fully satisfied in practical circuits.)

2. The cathode impedance is essentially the reactance of C_k at frequencies above that where the current through C_1 begins to become significant. This condition must be fulfilled in practical circuits where the degenerative effect must be minimized by specifying C_k sufficiently large.

3. The amplifier gain is not appreciably modified in magnitude or phase by the shunting effect of C_1 on R_1 in an intermediate range of frequencies where the degenerative effect commences.[6]

The current i_{c_1} may be expressed in simple form:

$$i_{c_1} = -e_i g_m R_1 (j\omega C_1). \tag{16}$$

The total signal current may then be expressed as a function of the degenerative current i_{c_1} and of the reactance of C_k.

$$i_t' = e_i(g_m + g_{12})\left[1 - g_m R_1\left(\frac{c_1}{c_k}\right)\right]. \tag{17}$$

The gain as modified by the degeneration may then be determined approximately.

$$A_I' = \left|\frac{-i_p' R_1}{e_i}\right| = A_I\left[1 - g_m R_1\left(\frac{c_1}{c_k}\right)\right]. \tag{18}$$

The second term in the brackets is the fractional decrease in gain. This decrease may be expressed in terms of the factor n, the percentage decrease in gain below the normal level.

$$n = 100\left[g_m R_1\left(\frac{c_1}{c_k}\right)\right]. \tag{19}$$

For design purposes, the preceding equation is most conveniently written in the form of an inequality which expresses C_k as a function of the maximum permissible decrease in gain which can be tolerated.

$$C_k \geqq C_1\left[\frac{100 g_m R_1}{n}\right]. \tag{20}$$

Appendix II

Design Inequality for C_2 versus C_k (Refer to Fig. 4).

The magnitude of the gain of the type-I pentriode amplifier may be obtained from (5), which includes the degenerative terms:

$$A_I = \mu_{12}\left[\frac{g_m R_1 + (g_m + g_{12})R_2}{\mu_{12} + (g_m + g_{12})R_2 + (g_m + g_{12})(\mu_{12} + 1)R_k}\right]. \tag{21}$$

If R_k is improperly by-passed by a capacitor C_k large enough to eliminate the degenerative cathode impedance *at any frequency below the crossover region* (as determined by C_2), the gain is increased to the following value:

$$A_I' = \mu_{12}\left[\frac{g_m R_1 + (g_m + g_{12})R_2}{\mu_{12} + (g_m + g_{12})R_2}\right]. \tag{22}$$

The percentage rise in gain above the nominal level indicated in (8) may be expressed:

$$\Delta A_I = 100\left[\frac{A_I' - A_I}{A_I}\right]$$

$$= 100\,\frac{R_2}{R_1}\left(\frac{g_m + g_{12}}{g_m}\right)\left[\frac{\mu_{12} - g_m R_1}{\mu_{12} + (g_m + g_{12})R_2}\right]. \tag{23}$$

This is the maximum percentage error that can possibly occur because of an insufficiently high ratio C_2/C_k. In practice, the ratio is generally large enough so that only a fraction of the gain rise of (23) will occur. The approximate derivation is based upon the following conditions and assumptions:

1. C_k by-passes the shunt combination of R_k and $1/g_m$ (impedance of tube at the cathode). The shunt combination may be written as $R_k/(1+g_m R_k)$.

2. C_2 by-passes the shunt combination of μ_{12}/g_{12} (screen resistance) and R_2, the combination being written as

$$(\mu_{12}R_2)/(\mu_{12} + g_{12}R_2).$$

3. The effectiveness of the by-passing action of these two circuits at any frequency may be related by a factor ρ.

$$\frac{\left(\frac{\mu_{12}R_2}{\mu_{12} + g_{12}R_2}\right)}{X_{c_2}} \equiv \rho\,\frac{\left(\frac{R_k}{1 + g_m R_k}\right)}{X_{c_k}}. \tag{24}$$

In the practical amplifier, the screen must be by-passed much more heavily than the cathode ($\rho \gg 1$) in order to prevent excessive rise in gain.

4. Virtually the maximum rise in gain specified in (23) would be attained if the cathode by-pass were to be increased to the extent that ($\rho = 1$). Sufficiently accurate results are obtained when the assumption is made that an increase in ρ causes the actual percentage rise in gain m to be decreased below the maximum value in accordance with the simple equation:

$$m \cong \frac{1}{\rho}\,[\Delta A_I]. \tag{25}$$

The design inequality relating C_2 and C_k is then obtained by direct substitution and rearrangement of (23), (24), and (25).

$$C_2 \geqq C_k\left[\frac{100 R_k (g_m + g_{12})(\mu_{12} + g_{12}R_2)}{m\mu_{12} g_m R_1 (1 + g_m R_k)}\right]$$

$$\cdot\left[\frac{\mu_{12} - g_m R_1}{\mu_{12} + (g_m + g_{12})R_2}\right]. \tag{26}$$

[6] It should be noted that, as the frequency is increased above the intermediate range, the gain and hence the degenerative current are both decreased and changed in phase. These magnitude and phase changes cause a decrease in the degenerative effect at very high frequencies, and the gain becomes independent of C_k as indicated in Fig. 5.

Isotopes and Nuclear Structure*

R. E. LAPP†, AND H. L. ANDREWS‡

In the September, 1948, issue of the PROCEEDINGS OF THE I.R.E., there appeared a paper by R. E. Lapp and H. L. Andrews on "Atomic Structure." This paper was published by courteous permission of the authors and of Prentice-Hall, Inc., publishers of a book entitled "Nuclear Radiation Physics," by these authors. Both the paper appearing in the September issue of the PROCEEDINGS, and the following related paper, are substantially chapters of the book in question.

These papers appear in the PROCEEDINGS OF THE I.R.E. in view of the interest of communications and electronic engineers in instrumentation and control methods and equipment useful in the field of nuclear phenomena. Such papers as these lay the ground work for the necessary understanding of nuclear phenomena upon which control or instrumentation technique is based.—*The Editor.*

MASS SPECTROSCOPY

IT IS WELL-KNOWN that positive ions can be deflected with appropriate electric and magnetic fields and thus they can be weighed. Instruments designed specifically for analyzing and weighing positive ions are known as *mass spectrographs*. A diagram of a Dempster-type double-focusing mass spectrograph appears in Fig. 1. Fig. 2 is a photograph of an assembled spectrograph box. This box fits between the poles of a large electromagnet and connects to a vacuum system which maintains the box assembly at a pressure of less than 10^{-5} mm Hg pressure.

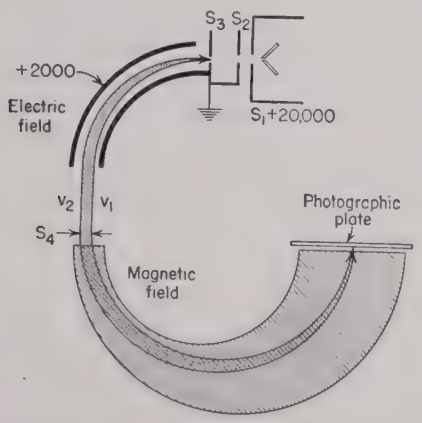
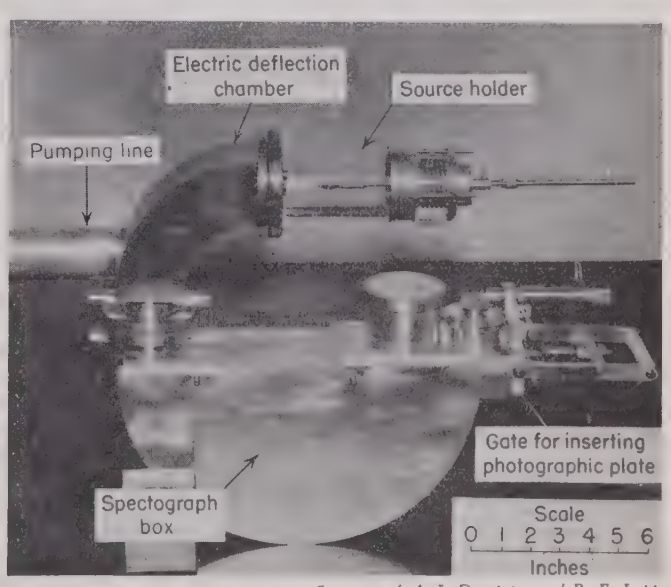


Fig. 1—Diagram of a Dempster-type mass spectrograph.

Positive ions are produced by sparking two electrodes in a vacuum. The ions thus generated are accelerated by a voltage source of about 15,000 volts into a slit system which effectively collimates the ion beam. Upon entering slit S_3, the ions are bent by the 90° electric field of several thousand volts, whereupon they emerge from the field and pass through a defining slit S_4. At this point, all ions of velocity v_1 come to a common focus; the faster ions of velocity v_2 come to a second common focus. There is, therefore, a velocity spectrum of ions over the breadth of this slit. As the ions enter the magnetic field they are bent through 180°, and all which have the same value of e/m are focused at a common point on the photographic plate, where they produce an image. This latter type of focusing is known as direction focusing and is independent of the velocity of the ions.



Courtesy of A. J. Dempster and R. E. Lapp

Fig. 2—A modern Dempster spectrograph. Auxiliary equipment (magnet, circuits) are not shown.

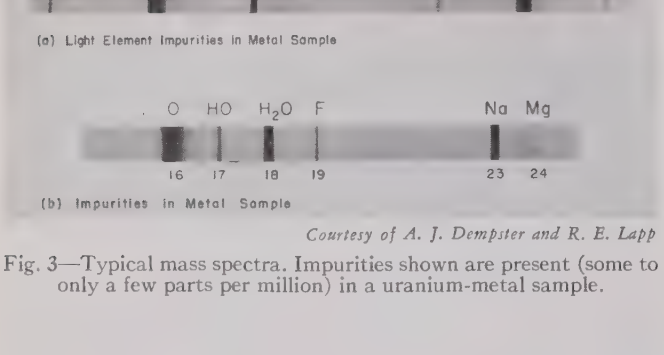
Fig. 3 is a reproduction of a typical mass spectrum taken with the instrument shown in the preceding figure. The spectrum shown was obtained from the impurities which were present in a sample of uranium which was being analyzed. Some of these elements were present to the extent of only 1 part in 1 million, and yet they are readily identified on the plate. Since the instrument focuses all ions of the same e/m ratio, singly ionized atoms of mass 7 (lithium) fall at the same point on the plate as doubly ionized atoms of mass 14 (nitrogen). As evidence of this, notice that the strong line between lithium and beryllium is due to doubly charged oxygen.

In 1913, Thomson used a mass spectrograph in estab-

* Decimal classification: 539. Original manuscript received by the Institute, August 6, 1948.

† Research and Development Board, Washington, D. C.
‡ National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Md.

lishing that the element neon had two separate components, one of mass 20 and one of mass 22. Prior to his discovery of neon 22, the fact that the atomic (chemical) weights of many elements differed widely from whole numbers had no reasonable explanation. Indeed, chlorine with an atomic weight of 35.46 diverged widely from the whole numbers 35 and 36. Thomson solved this vexing problem by assuming that each element may have atoms which have different mass but are chemically identical. Such atoms are called isotopes. From Thomson's assumption it follows that the chemical atomic weight is an average weight of the various isotopes of that element. Chlorine, for example, has been shown to have two isotopes, one Cl^{37} and the Cl^{35}. The weighted average of these isotopes yields an average atomic weight in good agreement with the measured weight.



Courtesy of A. J. Dempster and R. E. Lapp

Fig. 3—Typical mass spectra. Impurities shown are present (some to only a few parts per million) in a uranium-metal sample.

A variety of different types of mass-analysis instruments have been devised. Some employ a 60° magnetic field (Nier type) and are designed to analyze gas samples, while others are specially designed to work with solid or metallic samples. In general, an instrument which measures the positive ion current by collection on electrodes with subsequent amplification so that the output is continuously fed into a recording potentiometer is known as a *mass spectrometer*. On the other hand, those mass analysis instruments which use a photographic plate for recording the positive ions are called *mass spectrographs*. Different types of instruments are also designed to work in different parts of the mass range of the elements. One instrument, in particular, is designed to measure only He^4 for the special purpose of serving as a "leak" detector for application to vacuum systems.

Instruments designed to separate two neighboring isotopes with the greatest possible dispersion are said to have high *resolving power*. Such spectrographs have been used extensively in the exact comparisons of isotopic weights. In addition, special mass spectrometers are sometimes used to measure the relative percentage of the isotopes of an element and are so constructed that even extremely small amounts of an isotope can be measured. Data supplied by mass-spectrometric analysis have been extremely useful in the field of nuclear physics; furthermore, the data serve to provide the newcomer to the subject of nuclear physics with a graphic concept of isotopes and nuclear structure.

The Relative Abundance of Isotopes

Suppose that an element such as the heavy metal, molybdenum, is measured with a mass spectrometer of the Nier type. Fig. 4 shows the plot of positive ion current recorded for each mass number. In Table I are given the relative abundances, that is, the relative number of atoms of any mass number to the most abundant isotope of the element, as well as values of the *percentage abundance*. The latter term is simply the fraction (given in per cent) of any isotope of the element to the total

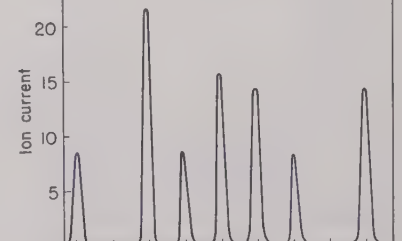


Fig. 4—Mass spectrum of molybdenum. (After D. William and P. Yuster, *Phys. Rev.*, vol. 69, p. 563; 1946.)

TABLE I

Relative Abundance of Molybdenum Isotopes*

Mass Number	Relative Abundance	Percentage Abundance
92	66.6	15.8
93	†	—
94	38.0	9.0
95	66.1	15.7
96	69.5	16.6
97	39.8	9.5
98	100.0‡	23.8
99	†	—
100	40.5	9.6
	420.5	100.0

* After D. Williams and P. Yuster, *Phys. Rev.*, vol. 69, p. 556; 1946.
† Not present to 1/10,000 that of isotope Mo^{98}.
‡ Abundance arbitrarily taken as 100 in arbitrary units.

number of all isotopes of the atom. Molybdenum has seven isotopes, as shown in the table, in the mass range from $A = 92$ to 100; isotopes of mass number 93 and 99 are not present, at least not to more than 1 part to 10,000 of Mo^{98}.

A survey of all elements occurring in nature has shown that the percentage abundance of isotopes of any element may vary widely. For example, tin has ten isotopes some of which are present to only a fraction of 1 per cent, while other elements, such as gold and tantalum, have only one isotope. Certain regularities

in the number of naturally occurring isotopes per element are manifest in the periodic system of elements. For example, the groups of odd atomic number contain elements having usually only a single or at most two isotopes, whereas the groups of even atomic number rarely contain elements with only one isotope.

A mass of experimental data have been accumulated that substantiate the belief that the relative abundance of isotopes for any given element is a constant independent of the location from which the sample of the substance is obtained. Thus, samples of meteoritic iron when compared with iron from the earth show the same isotopic constitution. We do not, however, understand the rules which govern the isotopic composition of an element. Our information on this subject is chiefly empirical in nature. In general, our knowledge about the occurrence of isotopes in nature can be summarized as follows:

(1) Isotopes having an even atomic number and an even neutron number are most abundant in nature. These so-called "even-even" isotopes constitute the majority of elements in the earth's crust. In fact, elements having just an even atomic number are 70 times more abundant than elements having an odd value of Z.

(2) "Even-odd" and "odd-even" isotopes, namely, those characterized by either an even N and odd Z, or an odd N and even Z, are moderately abundant in nature.

(3) "Odd-odd" isotopes, that is, those having both odd atomic and neutron numbers, are extremely rare and, in fact, only four such isotopes are known to exist in stable form. There are: $_1H^2$, $_3Li^6$, $_5B^{10}$, and $_7N^{14}$. All four elements, it will be noticed, are light and are on that part of the stability curve where the number of neutrons tends to be equal to the number of protons.

Natural isotopes are found as indicated in Table II.

TABLE II

		Z	
		Even	Odd
N	Even	160	52
	Odd	56	4

The Neutron-Proton Ratio of Stable Isotopes

In Fig. 5, all known stable isotopes have been plotted on what is called a *neutron-proton diagram*. Here we have simply taken the co-ordinate axes as the neutron and proton numbers and represented each isotope by a small circle. Perhaps the most striking feature of this distribution of isotopes, when plotted as shown, is the tendency for all isotopes to group themselves within a narrow band. The curve drawn through the scattered circles is known as the line of stability, or the *stability curve*. Initially the slope of this curve is almost 45°, indicating that the nuclei contain about equal numbers of neutrons and protons. Another way of saying the same thing is to state that the N/P ratio is equal to unity.

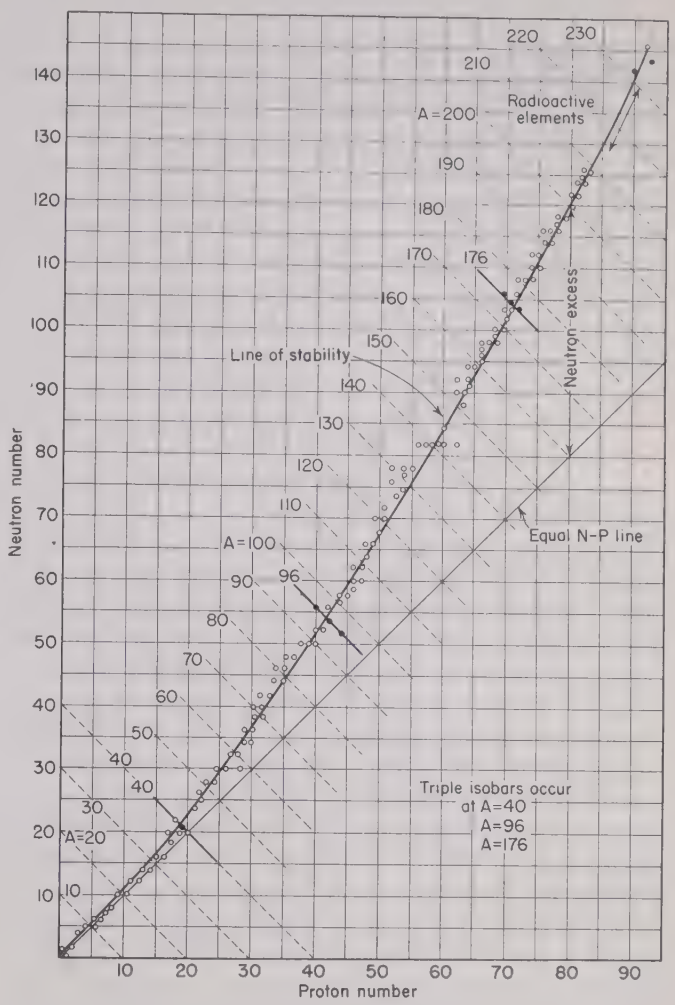


Fig. 5—A neutron-proton plot of natural isotopes. (Only those isotopes of an element that have relative abundance greater than 20 per cent are shown.)

For larger values of P, the N/P ratio diverges from unity and becomes increasingly larger with higher atomic numbers. For $P=82$, the N/P ratio is 1.25. In Fig. 5, the line drawn at 45° ($N/P=1$) to the abscissa is the equal N–P line. The vertical distance from this line (measured in neutron numbers) to the line of stability is equal to the *neutron excess* for the particular isotope. Analytically, the neutron excess is simply equal to $N-P$.

A series of line segments drawn across the stability curve at 45° to the ordinate are shown in the figure. These are *isobaric lines* and connect points of equal mass number ($N+P$) and different atomic number. On some of these lines there appear two isotopes, and on a few, three isotopes are found. These isotopes are called *isobars* and are nuclei which have the same mass number but are of different atomic number.

Analytically, the experimental stability curve is approximated by the following equation:

$$Z = \frac{A}{2 + 0.0146A^{2/3}}. \quad (1)$$

Instead of plotting isotopes on an N–P plot, we may use the trilinear scheme, which is of more recent origin. Fig. 6 illustrates the essential features of this plotting technique, which has the virtue that it constitutes a

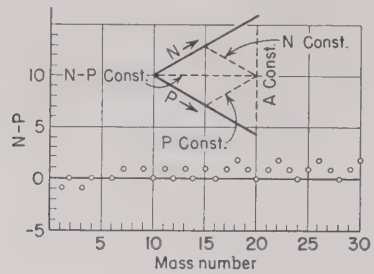


Fig. 6—The trilinear plot of isotopes.

simultaneous A versus Z, N versus Z, and A versus N plot. Furthermore, it allows for an extensive plot of many isotopes from $A=0$ to 240 on a single strip of paper which may be folded into a convenient size. The trilinear diagram has the following characteristics:

1. All isotopes of a given element (Z=constant) lie on a line at 30° to the horizontal.
2. Isobars (A=constant) fall on a vertical line.
3. Isotones (N=constant) are grouped on a line at 30° below the horizontal. We will not make extensive use of the word *isotone*, which refers to isotopes of equal neutron number.
4. All isotopes having a constant isotopic number ($I=N-Z$-constant) fall on a horizontal line. Such isotopes are known as isodiaphores.

The Stability of Nuclei

The relative abundance of the isotopes of molybdenum is given in Table I. It is remarkable that this same relative abundance is obtained for any sample of molybdenum, no matter where it is mined. Furthermore, the isotope ratios do not change with time, and there is no reason to believe that they ever will undergo a natural change. For this reason, molybdenum is said to consist of stable isotopes. There are only a relatively few naturally occurring elements which do not always exhibit the same isotope ratio, regardless of their origin. One of these is lead. It is found that samples of lead taken from the Belgian Congo show a different isotope ratio than lead mined in some other parts of the world. There is no reason to believe, however, that any sample of lead, independent of its origin, changes its isotopic ratio with time. Lead which exhibits an anomolous isotopic abundance ratio is natural ore which has been contaminated with radiogenic lead (lead which is the end product of radioactive series). In certain parts of the world there are varying amounts of thorium and uranium. Since the thorium and uranium series terminate with a different stable isotope of lead, it is easy to understand how one sample of lead may contain an anomalous proportion of one of these isotopes.

The term "stability" as applied to an isotope is really a relative term. It implies that during any time interval of observation the isotope does not change its atomic number or mass. Thus an isotope may be said to be stable if it remains unchanged for a period of time which is long compared with whatever time period the observer is concerned. At the present stage of atomic research, our definition of stability is a function of the sensitivity of our measurement techniques, and we should regard this limit for continued investigation as a challenge that invites the discovery of new unstable isotopes.

TABLE III
Exact Isotopic Weights of Various Elements

Element	Isotope	Isotopic Weight M	Percentage Abundance
Hydrogen	$_1H^1$	1.00813	99.98
	$_1H^2$	2.01472	0.02
Helium	$_2He^3$	3.01698	$\sim 10^{-5}$
	$_2He^4$	4.00386	100
Lithium	$_3Li^6$	6.01692	7.5
	$_3Li^7$	7.01816	92.5
Beryllium	$_4Be^9$	9.01496	100
Boron	$_5B^{10}$	10.01617	18.4
	$_5B^{11}$	11.01290	81.6
Carbon	$_6C^{12}$	12.00388	98.9
	$_6C^{13}$	13.00756	1.1
Nitrogen	$_7N^{14}$	14.00753	99.62
	$_7N^{15}$	15.00487	0.38
Oxygen	$_8O^{16}$	16.00000	99.76
	$_8O^{17}$	17.0045	0.04
	$_8O^{18}$	18.00485	0.20
Fluorine	$_9F^{19}$	19.00454	100
Neon	$_{10}Ne^{20}$	19.99890	90.00
	$_{10}Ne^{21}$	21.00002	0.27
	$_{10}Ne^{22}$	21.99858	9.73
Sodium	$_{11}Na^{23}$	22.99645	100
Magnesium	$_{12}Mg^{24}$	23.99300	77.4
	$_{12}Mg^{25}$	24.99462	11.5
	$_{12}Mg^{26}$	25.99012	11.1
Aluminum	$_{13}Al^{27}$	26.99069	100
Silicon	$_{14}Si^{28}$	27.98723	89.6
	$_{14}Si^{29}$	28.98651	6.2
	$_{14}Si^{30}$	29.98399	4.2
Phosphorus	$_{15}P^{31}$	30.98441	100
Sulfur	$_{16}S^{32}$	31.98252	95.1
	$_{16}S^{33}$	32.98190	0.74
	$_{16}S^{34}$	33.97981	4.2
Chlorine	$_{17}Cl^{35}$	34.97884	75.4
	$_{17}Cl^{37}$	36.97770	24.6
Potassium	$_{19}K^{39}$	38.976	93.38
Vanadium	$_{23}Va^{51}$	50.96035	100
Iron	$_{26}Fe^{56}$	55.9571	91.57
Nickel	$_{28}Ni^{58}$	57.95971	67.4
Copper	$_{29}Cu^{63}$	62.957	70.13
	$_{29}Cu^{65}$	64.955	29.87
Zinc	$_{30}Zn^{64}$	63.957	50.9
Rhodium	$_{45}Rh^{103}$	102.949	100
Silver	$_{47}Ag^{107}$	106.950	51.9
	$_{47}Ag^{109}$	108.949	48.1
Tin	$_{50}Sn^{118}$	117.940	28.5
Xenon	$_{54}X^{131}$	132.946	27.0
Neodymium	$_{60}Nd^{146}$	145.964	16.5
Gadolinium	$_{64}Gd^{156}$	155.977	22
Platinum	$_{78}Pt^{195}$	196.039	35.3
Gold	$_{79}Au^{197}$	197.039	100
Lead	$_{82}Pb^{208}$	208.060	52.3

With precision mass spectrographs at their disposal, physicists have been able to determine the atomic masses of many isotopes to a high degree of precision. The chemists had already selected oxygen as the standard element upon which their system of atomic weights was based. Viewed from the vantage point of our present knowledge, this choice was rather unfortunate, since we know that oxygen has three isotopes. In comparing atomic weights, physicists use the most abundant isotope of oxygen as a standard in the physical atomic weight scale and take it equal to 16.00000. The masses of isotopes of other elements can be accurately measured with respect to 0^{16}. *Isotopic weights* thus obtained for a few typical isotopes are tabulated in Table III. Had we not already defined mass number, we could easily define it as the whole number which is nearest the given isotopic weight (denoted by M).

We define a new term—the *mass decrement* δ—as the difference between the isotopic weight M and the mass number A of an isotope.

Thus

$$\delta = M - A. \tag{2}$$

Another term, the *packing fraction* f, is simply the mass decrement per nucleon and is given by

$$f = \frac{\delta}{A} = \frac{M - A}{A}. \tag{3}$$

Since the mass decrement is always very small (less than 0.1 mass unit) the packing fraction is usually given in parts per ten thousand. It is, of course, a dimensionless quantity.

Illustrative Example: Using the data given in Table I, calculate the mass decrement and packing fraction of ${}_3Li^7$ and ${}_{28}Ni^{58}$.

Considering the lithium isotope first, we have

$$\delta_{Li} = 7.01816 - 7.00000 = +\,0.0186 \text{ m.u.}$$

$$f_{Li} = \frac{0.01816}{7} = +\,25.9 \times 10^{-4}.$$

Similarly, for nickel

$$\delta_{Ni} = 57.95971 - 57.00000 = -\,0.04029 \text{ m.u.}$$

$$f_{Ni} = -\frac{0.04029}{58} = -\,6.95 \times 10^{-4}.$$

In general, we find that light isotopes up to $A = 20$ have a positive packing fraction, as do the elements of atomic weight greater than 180. Intermediate isotopes from $A = 20$ to 180 have negative packing fractions. The variation of f with A is shown in Fig. 7, where there is reproduced a redrawn copy of Aston's original packing-fraction curve. Rather than discuss this curve in detail, we postpone our discussion to the next section, where we will find that another curve is much easier to interpret. This short discussion of the packing fraction has been included for the sake of completeness.

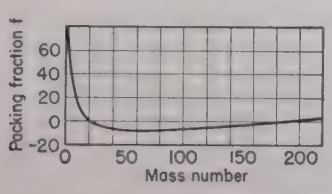


Fig. 7—Aston's original packing-fraction curve.

The Binding Energy Per Nucleon

The exact measurement of nuclear masses with the mass spectrometer makes it possible to calculate the energy with which nuclei are bound together. Consider any nucleus of mass M (accurately measured) which contains N neutrons and P protons. Both the mass of the neutron (m_n) and that of the proton (m_p) have been accurately measured and are known to be

$$m_n = 1.008938 \text{ m.u.}$$

$$m_p = 1.007579 \text{ m.u.}$$

But, by definition, the atomic mass unit is a mass equal to 1/16 of the mass of the ${}_8O^{16}$ isotope. One mass unit therefore equals 1.6603×10^{-24} grams. Suppose that one calculates what the mass of this nucleus should be if it is simply the sum of the masses of the individual neutrons inside the nucleus. Let this value to be calculated be W; then

$$W = Nm_p + Pm_p. \tag{4}$$

From the Einstein equation it follows that the total energy associated with this mass is obtained by multiplying the right-hand side of the equation by the factor c^2.

We now introduce a term, called the *mass defect* Δ, which is defined as the difference between the mass W, as given by (4), and the actually measured isotopic mass M. Thus

$$\Delta = W - M. \tag{5}$$

The reader should note that there is a difference between the mass decrement δ given by (1) and the mass defect. Mass numbers (A) are whole numbers which usually differ from the masses (W) given by (4) by a significant amount. In many textbooks mass defect is often defined by (1) rather than by (5), and this leads to confusion. To illustrate the application of (4) and (5), let us consider the following examples:

Illustrative Example: Calculate the mass of an alpha particle using (3). In this case we have $N = 2$ and $P = Z$, so that W is given by

$$W = 2m_m 2m_p$$

$$= 2(1.00894) + 2(1.00758)$$

$$= 4.03304 \text{ m.u.}$$

However, the mass spectrographic value for the mass of the helium atom is 4.00389 m.u. and if we subtract 0.00055 m.u. for each electron in the helium atom, we see that the mass of the nucleus is 4.00279 m.u. There is thus a difference of

$$\begin{aligned} W &= 4.03304 \\ -M &= 4.00279 \\ \Delta &= 0.03025 \text{ m.u.} \end{aligned}$$

Since 1 m.u. = 931 Mev, this mass defect is equivalent to (0.03025) × (931) or 28.20 Mev.

TABLE IV

BINDING ENERGIES FOR VARIOUS NUCLEI

Nucleus	Mass Defect Δ (m.u.)	Binding Energy (Mev)	Binding Energy per Nucleon (Mev)
$_1H^2$	0.00235	2.19	1.09
$_1H^3$	0.000753	8.32	2.77
$_2He^3$	0.00821	7.62	2.55
$_2He^4$	0.03029	28.20	7.05
$_3Li^6$	0.03431	31.94	5.32
$_3Li^7$	0.04201	39.11	5.59
$_4Be^9$	0.06229	57.99	6.44
$_5B^{10}$	0.06921	64.44	6.44
$_5B^{11}$	0.08142	75.80	6.89
$_6C^{12}$	0.09858	91.77	7.65
$_6C^{13}$	0.10384	96.67	7.44
$_7N^{14}$	0.11200	104.27	7.44
$_7N^{15}$	0.12361	115.08	7.67
$_8O^{16}$	0.13661	127.18	8.01
$_8O^{17}$	0.14105	131.32	7.72
$_8O^{18}$	0.14965	139.32	7.74
$_9F^{19}$	0.15809	147.18	7.74
$_{10}Ne^{20}$	0.17186	160.00	8.00
$_{10}Ne^{21}$	0.17968	167.29	7.96
$_{10}Ne^{22}$	0.19007	176.96	8.04
$_{13}Al^{27}$	0.24024	223.67	8.28
$_{18}A^{38}$	0.35063	326.43	8.59
$_{24}Cr^{52}$	0.4866	453.0	8.71
$_{29}Cu^{63}$	0.5829	542.7	8.61
$_{36}Kr^{82}$	0.7662	713.3	8.69
$_{42}Mo^{100}$	0.921	857	8.57
$_{50}Sn^{124}$	1.123	1045	8.43
$_{64}Gd^{160}$	1.403	1306	8.16
$_{78}Pt^{196}$	1.651	1536	7.84
$_{83}Bi^{209}$	1.746	1625	7.77
$_{92}U^{235}$	1.915	1783	7.60

If we were able to fuse together or synthesize two neutrons and two protons to form an alpha particle, the resulting nucleus would actually be lighter (by 0.03025 m.u.) than the total mass of the original nucleons. In this fusion process, mass would apparently be lost. Actually, the mass is not lost but rather constitutes the *binding energy* which holds the nucleons together in the helium nucleus. Conversely, if a means were available to disintegrate an alpha particle into two neutrons and two protons, it is clear that 28 Mev of energy would be required for the reaction.

Just as we calculated the binding energy for the helium nucleus, we can deduce the binding energies of other nuclei. In this connection, we list in Table IV mass defects, binding energies, and binding energies per nucleon for a variety of nuclei. Binding energy is simply given by multiplying the mass defect by c^2. Thus

$$\text{binding energy} = (W - M)c^2. \tag{6}$$

If W and M are expressed in mass units, then (6) becomes

$$\text{binding energy (Mev)} = 931(W - M).$$

An important quantity, the *binding energy per nucleon* denoted by Σ, is defined as

$$\Sigma = \left(\frac{W - M}{A}\right)c^2. \tag{7}$$

As is evident from (7), the binding energy per nucleon is equal to the total binding energy for a nucleus divided by the total number of nucleons in the nucleus. The various values of Σ given in Table IV have been plotted as a function of mass number in Fig. 8. Since the elements which have the greatest binding energy per nucleon are the most stable, it is clear from the curve that nuclei of intermediate mass number are more stable than those at either end of the mass number

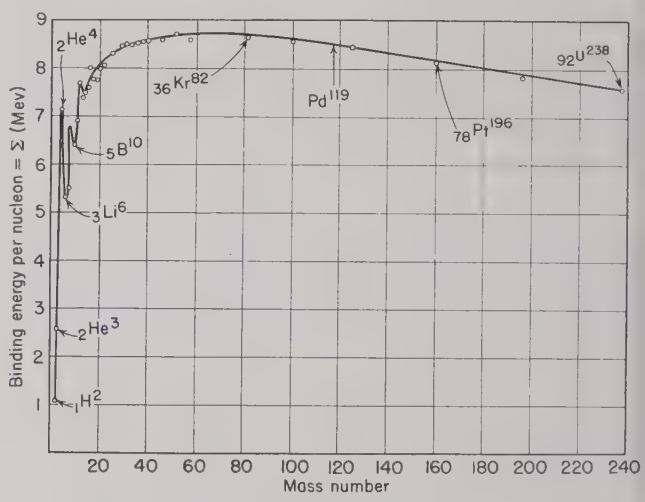


Fig. 8—The variation of binding energy per nucleon with mass number.

range. Furthermore, stability of nuclei for the lightest elements increases very sharply initially and then gradually becomes fairly constant at about mass number $A = 50$. Thereafter the stability decreases slowly, reaching a value of $\Sigma = 7.4$ Mev for uranium, as contrasted with a maximum value of $\Sigma = 8.7$ Mev for chromium. If we examine the part of the curve for elements lighter than those corresponding to $A = 30$, we note that the curve is not smooth but is marked by severe irregularities. This jaggedness must mean that certain of the light nuclei must be much more stable than others of almost equal mass. For example, He^4, C^{12}, and O^{16} have higher values of Σ than nuclei immediately adjacent to them in the periodic table. It would thus appear that those nuclei which, in a sense, contain subgroups of alpha particles are more stable than other light nuclei. These data constitute graphic evidence that alpha-particle groups form subshells within the nucleus.

Nuclear Forces

On the basis of the laws of physics which have been discussed up to now, one might attempt to explain nuclear forces in either of two ways. First, it might be assumed that the forces are coulomb or electric forces. However, such an assumption only illustrates that the nucleus should not be bound together at all, for the only charged particles in the nucleus are protons, and these being of like charge and close together would repel each other and constitute a disruptive force. Second, it might be assumed that the forces are gavitational. Now the gravitational force between two particles m_n and m_p (neutron and proton, as in the deuterium nucleus) separated by a distance r is given by

$$F = \frac{Gm_pm_n}{r^2} \tag{8}$$

where G is the gravitational constant and is $=6.66\times10^{-8}$ gram^{-1} cm^3 sec^{-2}. Here the force would be attractive, but for a value of $r=10^{-13}$ cm, which is a typical separation for nucleons, the force between a neutron and proton is extremely small. Actually, the force is about 10^{38} times less than that required to account for the observed binding energy of the deuteron.

Since neither of these assumptions lead to a solution of the problem, it is necessary to assume that nuclear forces are of a new type not previously found in physics. From experimental data, certain characteristics of this new type of force are known. These are:

(a) Except for the repulsive force due to the coulomb intersection of the protons, the force between nucleons is always attractive. Furthermore, the nuclear forces are considerably larger than the coulomb forces. Were this not true, no nuclei would exist at all, for the coulomb force would disrupt them.

(b) Nuclear forces are not strongly dependent upon the nature of the interacting nucleons. In other words, the nuclear force $(n-p)$ is not much different from that acting between two neutrons.

(c) The force between two protons is approximately the same as that between two neutrons. Evidence for this equality is found in the fact that, for light nuclei, the number of neutrons tends to be the same as the number of protons. Furthermore, we have seen that the combination of two neutrons and two protons in He^4, C^{12}, and O^{16} forms a very stable configuration.

This last property of nuclear forces is rather unusual, and we will, therefore, discuss it in detail. The four nucleons making up a He^4 nucleus form a closed system in which each nucleon is fully *saturated*, with respect to its interaction, with the other three nucleons. We might describe this saturation property as a pairing of nucleons; that is, each nucleon tends to pair off or interact with one other nucleon to the exclusion of others which may be present. In effect, then, heavy nuclei are made up of subgroups of nucleons, rather than being composed of nucleons which interact with all others in the nucleus. Were the latter to be true, the total binding energy of a nucleus would be proportional to A^2, rather than conform to the known dependence which is essentially proportional to the first power of the mass number. Reference to the curve in Fig. 7 illustrates this saturation property of nuclear forces, for most nuclei tend to have about the same value for the binding energy per nucleon ($\sim$8 Mev), just as for the nucleons in He^4. Let us consider the nuclei of mass number greater than $A=4$ in order to see the effect of saturation. No isotope of mass number 5 exists in nature. An explanation is afforded by assuming that the nucleons within the He^4 nucleus are fully saturated and will not interact strongly enough with an additional nucleon to form an isotope of mass number 5. An isotope of mass 6 exists because it is essentially a system of three neutrons and three protons which pair off to form a stable configuration.

Nuclear forces are distinctly short-range forces. By "short range," we mean that the forces have a fairly constant (saturation) value up to a distance of the order of 10^{-13} cm. As an illustration of the actual distances involved, let us consider the following example:

Illustrative Example: The binding energy of the deuteron is 2.19 Mev. Assuming that the neutron and proton can be considered as a proton-proton combination, make an estimate of the separation of the protons.

To do this we assume that the coulomb energy of the system is about one-fourth that of the binding energy (this assumption is arbitrarily made to obtain an "order of magnitude" answer). The coulomb repulsive energy is given by e^2/r, so that

$$e^2/r = 1/4(2.19\times10^6)(1.6\times10^{-12})$$
$$r = 3\times10^{-13} \text{ cm}.$$

It is instructive to consider the tritium-helium isobars ($_1H^3$, $_2He^3$) in order to gain an appreciation of $(n-n)$ and $(p-p)$ forces. Suppose we illustrate the fact that the $(n-n)$ force is almost equal to the $(p-p)$ interaction by the following examples:

Illustrative Example: Given that the isotopic weights of H^3 and He^3 are 3.01705 and 3.01699, respectively, calculate the binding energy of each nucleus and explain the difference between the two results.

Suppose we arrange the data as shown in Table V.

TABLE V

	$_1H^3$	$_2He^3$	
Isotopic Weight M	3.01705	3.01699	
Subtract the weight of electron(s)*	0.00055	0.00110	
Weights of nuclei	3.01650	2.01589	
Weight $W-(Nm_n+Pm_p)$	3.02546	3.02410	
Mass defect	0.00896	0.00821	m.u.
Binding energy	8.32	7.63	Mev

Difference in binding energies $=0.69$ Mev

* Isotope weights are conventionally given as weights of the entire atom.

To interpret the difference in binding energy shown, consider the forces between nucleons in each nucleus. In tritium, we have two $(n-p)$ force and one $(n-n)$ interaction; whereas for helium, we have two $(n-p)$ and one $(p-p)$ force. Thus we may write

$$(n - n) = (p - p) + 0.69 \text{ Mev},$$

and we see that the difference must be due to the coulomb force acting between the two protons.

The Binding-Energy Equation

A semi-empirical equation has been deduced so that the mass, and therefore the binding energy, of any isotope may be calculated. We will simply write down this equation without attempting to deduce it, and then we will explain the significance of each term in the equation and relate this to the binding energy per nucleon curve shown in Fig. 7. The equation is

$$M = m_n(A - Z) + m_pZ - a_1A + a_2A^{2/3} + a_3\frac{Z^2}{A^{1/3}} + a_4\frac{\left(\frac{A}{2} - Z\right)^2}{A} + \delta \qquad (9)$$

(a) (b) (c) (d) (e) (f) (g)

where M is the exact mass of an isotope of atomic number Z and mass number A which would result from building up the nucleus from Z protons and $A-Z$ neutrons, taking into account the observed decreases in mass of the neutron and proton due to binding. Formidable as the equation may seem at first, it is extremely useful, especially in calculating the probability that a neutron will cause fission in a heavy element. The significance of each term is as follows:

Term (a) $[m_n(A-Z)]$ is simply the product of the mass of the free neutron (m_n) and the total number of neutrons in the nucleus.

Term (b) $[m_pZ]$ is similarly the product of the mass of the free proton (m_p) and the total number of protons in the nucleus.

Terms (c) through (g) all make up the binding energy which is released when the free neutrons and protons are brought together to form the nucleus under consideration. This is equivalent to expressing analytically the empirical fact that nuclei have uniform density. This means that the volume occupied by a nucleus is proportional to the number of nucleons, and consequently the radius is proportional to $A^{1/3}$. More exactly, the nuclear radius is $1.4\times10^{-13}\,A^{1/3}$.

Term (c) $[a_1A]$ expresses the fact that nucleons are held together by the attractive nuclear force, and therefore work is done and energy lost when the particles are fused together. The constant of proportionality a_1 is numerically $+0.01504$.

Term (d) $[a_2A^{2/3}]$ is an expression which takes into account the fact that the surface of the nucleus contains nucleons which are not subject to the same interaction with other nucleons as are those in the interior. Surface nucleons are less tightly bound. It is for this reason that light nuclei have binding energies per nucleon less than those for medium-heavy nuclei, since light nuclei have relatively greater surface area per unit volume. Since the nuclear surface area is proportional to r^2 and since r is proportional to $A^{1/3}$, this effect will be proportional to $A^{2/3}$. Empirically, a_2 is a constant $=+0.014$.

Term (e) $\left[a_3\frac{Z^2}{A^{1/3}}\right]$ expresses the repulsive effect of the protons within the nucleus. For $A>120$, this coulomb repulsion of the protons increases sufficiently to offset the attractive forces.

The constant $a_3=0.000627$.

Term (f) $\left[a_4\frac{\left(\frac{A}{2}-Z\right)^2}{A}\right]$ takes account of the empirical fact that the number of protons in any nucleus tends to be equal to one-half the total number of nucleons. This tendency may not seem apparent in heavy nuclei, where the number of neutrons is greater than the number of protons, but the two would be equal were it not for the electrostatic repulsion of the protons. The constant of proportionality, a_4, is equal to 0.083.

Term (g) $[\delta]$ is a correction term which adjusts for small changes in energy due to the pairing of nucleons in the nucleus. This term may be

$\delta = +k$ if A is even but Z is odd

$\delta = 0$ if A is odd

$\delta = -k$ if A is even and Z is even

and

$$k = \frac{0.036}{A^{3/4}}.$$

By simplifying (9) and substituting the numerical values of the constants, we obtain

$$M = 0.99389A - 0.0081Z + 0.014A^{2/3} + 0.000627\frac{Z^2}{A^{1/3}} + 0.083\frac{\left(Z - \frac{A}{2}\right)^2}{A} + \delta. \qquad (10)$$

Into this semi-empirical equation has been put the contribution of all factors which are empirically known

to affect the binding energy. For all but low values of A, the equation yields approximate but fairly reliable values for the nuclear masses.

Illustrative Example: Calculate the binding energy of $_{28}Ni^{60}$. Substituting in (10), we have

$$M = 0.99389(60) - 0.00081(28) + 0.014(60)^{2/3} + 0.000627\frac{(28)^2}{60^{1/3}} + 0.083\frac{(-2)^2}{60} - \frac{0.036}{(60)^{3/4}}$$
$$= 59.6334 - 0.0227 + 0.2145 + 0.1255 + 0.0055 - 0.0017 = 59.9545.$$

This agrees reasonably well with the measured value of 59.94977.

From (4), $W = 32(1.00894) + 28(1.00758)$
$= 32.2861 + 28.2122$
$= 60.4983.$

The mass defect $= W - M$ (using the calculated value of M)
$= 60.4983 - 59.9545$
$= 0.5438$ m.u.

The binding energy is then, from (6),

binding energy $= 931(0.5438)$
$= 506$ Mev,

and the binding energy per nucleon, by (7), is

$$\Sigma = \frac{506}{60} = 8.4 \text{ Mev.}$$

A Nuclear Model

Just as Bohr developed the concept of atomic structure, he likewise advanced a model of nuclear structure. Basing his idea upon the characteristics of nuclear forces as they have been outlined, and upon the fact that only certain ratios of neutrons to protons are allowed for stable atoms, Bohr proposed that the nucleus could be thought of as a compact aggregate of nucleons, all in a constant state of motion and yet restricted to motion within a sphere of small radius. On this model, the nucleus corresponds to a small sphere of liquid, the constituents of which are nucleons which are fairly uniformly distributed throughout the sphere. For this reason, the Bohr model of the nucleus has been called the *liquid-drop model.* Since the nucleus is extremely small in diameter, these particles make many collisions per second, and they all tend to have the same average energy. It is, therefore, easy to see that the nucleus has a uniform density.

The short-range nuclear forces which have been introduced into the discussion are known in quantum mechanics as resonance or exchange forces. These forces are not well understood, and much of the current research in physics is directed toward understanding the nature of the interactions between nucleons. At the present time theoretical physicists believe that an intermediate mass particle known as the *meson* is the means by which the nucleons interact. The Japanese physicist Yukawa first proposed that nucleons might virtually "share" a particle of about 200 electron masses in weight and thus serve to exchange energy between themselves. Modern meson theories, involving abstruse mathematical analysis, have been only partially successful in explaining a few of the observed properties of nuclear forces. Mesons of both positive and negative charge are postulated in order to conserve electric charge in the process whereby a proton virtually emits a positive meson or a neutron virtually produces a negative meson. These two reactions can be expressed by the equations:

$$p \rightarrow n + \mu^+ \qquad (11)$$

$$n \rightarrow p + \mu^-. \qquad (12)$$

These processes are thought of as occurring at an extremely high frequency, and the meson thus never leaves the field of the nucleon but is virtually absorbed. The high-frequency virtual emission and absorption of mesons by nucleons is assumed to constitute an exchange force which binds the nucleons together. These exchange forces are essentially the nuclear analogs of the covalent forces postulated to explain interatomic forces. In the case of proton-proton or neutron-neutron interactions, a charged meson would obviously be impossible, and for this reason the existence of a neutral meson (neutretto) has been postulated.

One of the most remarkable discoveries in modern physics occurred when Anderson found conclusive evidence for the existence of an intermediate mass particle in the cosmic radiation. This particle, known as the *mesotron* or *meson* (both names are in common use), is about 200 electron masses in weight, has a half-life of 2.1×10^{-6} seconds, and is found as a positively $(+e)$ and as a negatively $(-e)$ charged particle. As yet there is no experimental evidence for a neutral mesotron.

Early in 1948 the discovery of the production of mesons by artificial means was announced. The 184-inch Berkeley cyclotron was used to produce 490-Mev alpha particles, and these led to the production of mesons when they struck a carbon target. As a result of this discovery, physicists now have a known source of mesons many millions of times more intense than that provided by the cosmic radiation. Undoubtedly, in the not-too-distant future, researches will turn up new discoveries about nuclear structure which will shed more light upon the mysterious role of the meson in the nucleus.

Before leaving the subject of nuclear structure, we touch briefly upon the magnetic properties of the nucleus and nuclear particles. If we regard a charged particle, say, an electron, as a tiny sphere of electric charge which spins rapidly about its own axis, then it follows that this motion of electric charge should pro-

duce a magnetic field, for an electric current is merely charge in motion and it is well known that currents produce magnetic fields. Goudsmit and Uhlenbeck first recognized that an electron has its own intrinsic spin and associated magnetic field or, to be more exact, its own magnetic moment. An electron has a characteristic intrinsic angular momentum or *spin* with which there is associated a magnetic moment equal to $eh/4\pi mc$, where all the symbols have their usual values and m is the mass of the electron. If we regard the proton as a spinning sphere of positive electric charge which has a definite angular momentum, then the proton should likewise have a definite magnetic moment. In effect, a proton should exhibit the magnetic behavior characteristic of a small (infinitesimal) dipole. While this picture is helpful for an elementary discussion, it is not adequate for a thorough understanding of nuclear magnetism.

TABLE VI*

NUCLEAR SPINS IN UNITS OF $h/2\pi$, AND NUCLEAR MAGNETIC MOMENTS IN UNITS OF THE NUCLEAR MAGNETON, μ_0†

Nucleus	I	μ/μ_0	Nucleus	I	μ/μ_0
$_0N^1$	1/2	−1.910	$_4Be^9$	3/2	−1.176
$_1H^1$	1/2	2.7896	$_5B^{10}$	1	0.598
$_1H^2$	1	0.8564	$_5B^{11}$	3/2	2.687
$_1H^3$	1/2	2.9756	$_6C^{12}$	0	0
$_2He^3$	1/2	−2.131	$_6C^{13}$	1/2	0.701
$_2He^4$	0	0	$_7N^{14}$	1	0.403
$_3Li^6$	1	0.8214	$_7N^{15}$	1/2	0.280
$_3Li^7$	3/2	3.2535	$_8O^6$	0	0

* From E. M. Purcell, *Science*, vol. 107, p. 433, 1948. The value for $_1He^3$ is from H. L. Anderson and A. Novick, *Phys. Rev.*, vol. 73, p. 919, 1948.

† The sign of the magnetic moment refers to the polarity of the nuclear dipole with respect to the direction of the angular-momentum vector.

In general, the magnetic moments associated with nuclei are about one thousand times smaller than that of the electron, since the magnetic moment is inversely proportional to the mass of the particle. For example, the magnetic moment of the proton is measured in units of $eh/4\pi Mc$ where M is the mass of the proton; the later expression is usually called a *nuclear magneton* and is the unit for measuring nuclear magnetic moments. Both the nuclear spin (denoted by I) and the nuclear magnetic moment are properties which are uniquely characteristic of nuclei. The spin may assume either integral or half-integral values, as is illustrated in Table VI, wherein there appear the spins and magnetic moments of several light nuclei. Certain rules exist which prescribe the spin value for a given nucleus, but as yet no consistent theory predicts the value of the magnetic moment for nuclei. Our simple picture of spinning charge brings us to despair when we note that the neutron, an uncharged particle, has an associated magnetic moment.

Duplex Tetrode UHF Power Tubes*

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Summary—**Major factors affecting the design and development of wide-band uhf power tubes are considered and emphasis is given to the television application. A qualitative discussion of methods for obtaining the required performance is presented, and a 5-kw 300-Mc liquid-cooled, internally neutralized duplex tetrode is described.**

INTRODUCTION

IN CONSIDERING the design and development of electron tubes suitable for use as grid-modulated television power amplifiers, there are certain performance characteristics that must be attained, and others that are highly desirable. The fixed tube-performance characteristics, such as bandwidth, power output, and carrier frequency, are determined by the standards adopted for television broadcasting, and must be accepted as minimum values in the design. When the other tube characteristics, grid currents, power gain, impedance presented to the modulator, efficiency, and feedback are considered, the desired values are not all attainable in a given design, and the best compromise is sought. Attempts to satisfy requirements of bandwidth, power gain, linearity, ease of modulation, and power output at the higher carrier frequencies can be resolved into a search for means of obtaining large cathode emission-current densities, large average anode-current densities, electrodes capable of handling large power dissipation per unit area of bombarded surface, small interelectrode spacings, small electron currents to the grids, and a tube geometry and circuit-wise arrangement of tube elements that will provide adequate utilization of the aforementioned.

Realizing that these requirements could not be adequately met if the limitations imposed by conventional tube design were assumed, Zworykin organized a laboratory group for research in high-power electron tubes in 1937. It was his continued interest and good counsel which made possible the development of a 50-kw tube which served as the background for the development of the smaller, higher-frequency power tube herein described.

Early in 1938 the senior author introduced a duplex tetrode with an electron-beam-forming electrode configuration and high-dissipation anodes. The initial tests

* Decimal classification: R339.2. Original manuscript received by the Institute, March 1, 1948; revised manuscript received, May 26, 1948.

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were made in continuously pumped demountable metal envelopes. Sealed-off demountable tubes were made possible when fitted with a copper-gasket demountable seal introduced by Garner, a member of the group. Many laboratory tubes were built and tested before a tube capable of a 5-kw output at 300 Mc with a total output bandwidth of 10 Mc could be properly designed. This paper describes such a tube.

Design Considerations

In arriving at a tube design, it is difficult to formulate a mathematical expression containing all of the factors affecting the design and to obtain the unique or the best solution. Tube design represents a compromise between conflicting factors which are individually studied to advantage, and which must be combined with care and ingenuity and with a view toward the circuit and application problems. A detailed analysis of the individual factors will not be attempted here, but only qualitative indications of the trends required for providing an improvement in the factors pertinent to the design of grid-controlled power tubes will be discussed.

The frequencies for the present commercial and experimental television channels are sufficiently high to make the electron-transit time between tube elements of importance. Many of the effects of long transit times are known, and have been observed in cathode back-bombardment, control-grid loading, and loss in efficiency and power output. Therefore, one of the present considerations is that of extending the usable frequency range of grid-controlled tubes by reducing the electron-transit time. Such a reduction in transit time is obtained by decreasing the interelectrode spacings and increasing the electron acceleration. Under conditions of space-charge-limited emission from the cathode, the increased electron acceleration is obtained only when increased cathode-current densities may be drawn. For example, the electron-transit time in a region between parallel-plane electrodes of large extent is proportional to the one-third power of the ratio of the electrode spacing to the current density when operated with space-charge-limited emission and assuming zero emission velocity. In grid-controlled high-frequency tubes, effective electrode spacings are obviously to be made as small as is practical without sacrificing mechanical rigidity of the electrode structure, and the longitudinal thermal conduction required for cooling. Large cathode-current densities are available from such surfaces as the thoria-on-tantalum cathode under steady-state conditions with a reasonable life. Since we are concerned with continuous operation, the large pulse emission-current densities from barium-strontium-oxide cathodes cannot be utilized.

An attempt to utilize large current densities increases the difficulty of providing an adequate control-electrode configuration, particularly for the high-frequency applications where close interelectrode spacings are of importance. Since grid control of the large-density electron emission is sought, it is evident that a beam-forming electrode arrangement can be used to advantage. A focusing electric field is provided in the region adjacent to the cathode surface by means of focusing elements electrically connected to the cathode, and projecting slightly beyond the cathode into the cathode-grid space. Many such focusing arrangements are possible and the details must be chosen to fit the method of construction and other tube parameters. A typical cathode and focusing-element arrangement is shown in Fig. 1.

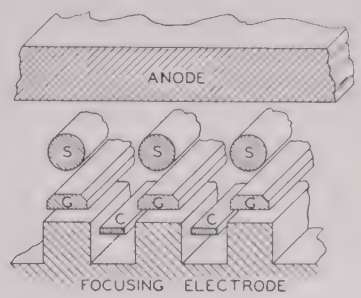


Fig. 1—A beam-forming electrode configuration. S=screen-grid element, G=control-grid element, C=electron-emitting filament.

Since the instantaneous voltages of the control grids and the anodes vary with respect to time, the electron beam focusing is not constant over the operating cycle. In a practical design, the electrode configuration and electric fields are so arranged that at the instant of maximum beam spreading the portions of the beam intercepted by the No. 1 and No. 2 grid elements are small enough to prevent excessive power dissipation at these elements. Also, the portion intercepted by the No. 1 grid should be sufficiently small to cause a negligible variation in the impedance presented to the rf driving stage and to the modulator over the modulation cycle. It is just this beam spreading and the possible formation of potential minima in the interelectrode regions that determines the values of applied voltages and the amplitude of the control-grid and anode rf voltages for a given structure. The electric fields must be sufficiently great at the maximum of the grid-voltage swing to support the large space-current densities and to maintain sufficiently narrow beams. Considerations of transit time and beam spreading determine the minimum gradients to be provided in the regions between the cathode and No. 1 grid, between the No. 1 grid and No. 2 grid, and between the No. 2 grid and the anode. Because of the gradients required in the latter region of a high-frequency power tetrode, the minimum of the instantaneous anode voltage of a high-frequency tetrode should be substantially above the screen-grid voltage to utilize in the best manner the current available in the plane of the No. 2 grid.

It is well recognized that the wide-band high-frequency power tube requires large power dissipation per unit area at the anode. In order that the greatest power and bandwidth be obtained from a tube with a given

anode current, the ratio of the tube output capacitance to the anode current should be small and the anode power dissipation per unit area should be large. When sufficient anode dissipation is available, the maximum tube output load impedance is determined by the required bandwidth and the tube output capacitance plus whatever effective capacitance is added by the output circuit. It is assumed that the anode voltage can be increased to the required value without failure of the tube or circuit. This assumption is reasonable for total bandwidths of 10 Mc or more, but leads to excessively high voltages for bandwidths less than 1 Mc. When the allowable anode dissipation is too low, in a given tube, the tube must be operated with a reduced anode voltage, a reduced output load impedance, and consequently a reduced efficiency and power output. At this expense, an output circuit is obtained whose bandwidth is increased beyond that required.

The requirement of large anode dissipation per unit area of bombarded surface can be met by the use of high-velocity water in cooling channels formed in a copper or silver anode body. This construction increases the area of metal in contact with the water and reduces the tendency for diversion of the cooling water by steam bubbles. Such an anode structure is shown in Fig. 6. This structure permits anode dissipations of from 500 to 1000 watts per square cm averaged over the anode face. This is to be compared with an allowable dissipation of 50 to 100 watts per square cm in conventional structures.

With an electron-beam system such that but a small portion of the beam current is collected by the No. 1 grid and such that the electron-transit-time effects are small, a large power gain can be achieved if the circuit losses are low and if there is no feedback. Small amounts of feedback from the output circuit to the input circuit give rise to assymmetric distortion of the sidebands, while larger values of feedback will produce instability and oscillation. It is common practice to add a load to the input grid circuit to minimize the effects of the feedback, even though such loading decreases the power gain. The feedback can be made small by designing the tube such that the anode and output circuit are shielded from the input by special grids, as is done in the tetrode, and somewhat similarly in the grounded-grid triode; or a neutralizing circuit may be applied. In the design of grids, the requirements for obtaining good shielding conflict with those for obtaining the desired electronic performance, and a compromise is usually made. As a result, most tetrodes and grounded-grid triodes require some neutralization for wide-band amplification at a high frequency. The selectivity of the neutralizing circuits for such application introduces an added difficulty in obtaining wide-band amplification. The selectivity of the neutralizing circuits can be decreased by making their elements very short compared to a quarter wavelength at the operating frequency. In a duplex tetrode arranged for push-pull operation, such short neutralizing elements can be located internally. This is done in the described developmental tube.

In order that the circuit losses be kept to low values to increase the power gain and to prevent mechanical failure as a result of heating, it is desirable that metal-to-glass seals be used that have low I^2R losses in the metal member. Among the seals suitable for power-tube construction, two such types are well known. These are the feather-edge copper-to-glass Housekeeper seal and the silver-plated-chrome iron-to-glass seal. The Housekeeper seal has good electrical conductivity but lacks the mechanical strength and rigidity of the kovar seal, and because of its construction is difficulty to apply in some designs. The silver-plated-chrome iron-to-glass seals are made with *rf* induction heating and require carefully controlled heating conditions. These seals use a glass with a lower softening temperature than that of the kovar sealing glasses.

The kovar-to-glass seal is widely accepted and is satisfactory, except for its high electrical resistivity, which may become troublesome in some high-frequency tubes. During the work on the described tetrodes, methods have been developed for coating the kovar with a high-conductivity film and for sealing kovar matching glasses to this film. A coating of either copper, silver, gold, or chromium is electroplated to a thickness of several mils and is bonded to the kovar. Seals made to kovar coating in this manner have an electrical conductivity 10 to 20 times that of uncoated kovar at frequencies in excess of 50 Mc, and are particularly adaptable to the structures and requirements herein described.

In the design of a tube for application as a grid-modulated amplifier, a linear modulation characteristic is usually sought. While some curvature of the modulation characteristic is acceptable, it is important that the shape and slope of the characteristic be independent of the frequency and amplitude of the modulating voltage. Large variations in the required rf driving power with modulating voltage applied will make the modulation characteristic substantially dependent on the modulating frequency, unless the input grid circuit has a bandwidth equal to, or greater than, the tube output circuit. Such variations in the required grid driving power can be reduced by reducing the feedback, the electron current to the No. 1 grids, and the electron-transit times. These reductions will also act to make the impedance presented to the modulator more nearly constant over the modulating cycle.

The duplex tetrode tube arrangement was selected by the authors as lending itself to internal neutralization and being capable of providing an effective utilization of beam-forming electrode configurations, thoria-coated filaments, and large-dissipation anodes in a tube to be operated as a wide-band grid-modulated power amplifier in the present commercial television channels. In the duplex tetrode the two tetrode units can be placed in very close proximity and can use, in effect, common

screen-grid and cathode structures. The two screen grids are directly connected and by-passed to the cathode structure by low-impedance members, as in Fig. 4 and Fig. 5. The cathodes of the two tetrode units can be provided as the opposite legs of a "U"-shaped filament. These features permit the design of a high-gain wide-band grid-modulated high-frequency power tube that has exceptionally low feedback and good modulation characteristics.

Since a maximum of shielding is required between the input and output circuits, a metal envelope can be used to advantage to provide a convenient connection to external shielding in such a way as to make the envelope act as part of the shield. The metal envelope is also convenient when a demountable structure is desired. Two types of copper-gasketed compression joints are shown in Fig. 2. One of these uses a flat copper-ring gasket compressed between a flat and a curved surface, while the other uses two round wire rings clamped between two flat surfaces, the outer ring acting only as a support ring to prevent distortion of the clamping plates. Ground and polished clamping surfaces are used with annealed OFHC copper gaskets. These demountable joints may be baked to 450°C in the processing of the tube, and are regularly used in sealed-off tubes. The tube shown in Fig. 7 is constructed with a compression joint and metal envelope, and is operated as a sealed-off tube.

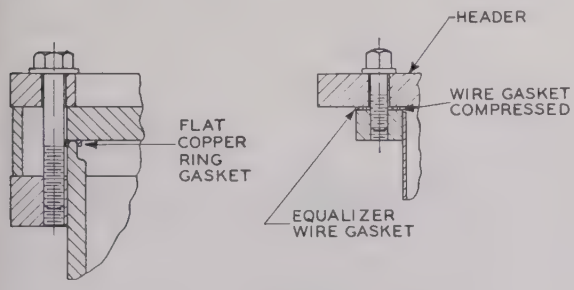


Fig. 2—Details of the copper-gasket vacuum seals.

The Duplex Tetrode

The tube described is a developmental liquid-cooled duplex tetrode arranged for push-pull operation as a grid-modulated television power amplifier, and is designed to give a power output, at the maximum of the synchronizing pulse, of 5 kw at 300 Mc, and a total output bandwidth of 16 Mc. Neutralization is provided by elements attached to the No. 1 grids and included within the vacuum envelope.

An electron-beam-forming electrode configuration is used with a thoria-coated "U"-shaped filament in the arrangement shown in Fig. 1. The opposite sides of the filament act as the cathodes for the two tetrode units. The construction of the cathode and focusing-electrode assembly is shown in Fig. 3. Each of the two focusing-electrode blocks is connected to the filament, and functions as the connection to the filament-heating supply. A mica sheet is used to insulate the two focusing-electrode blocks, which are supported and cooled by water-cooled blocks fixed to the header plate. Tantalum heat and emission shields are used, and are shown as part of the cathode assembly in Fig. 3. The electron-emitting surface of each of the two halves of the 8-strand filament is approximately 1.6 square cm in area. The filament strands are formed from tantalum sheet. A layer of thoria powder is sintered to the surface of the tantalum after the filament is formed. The filament operates at approximately 2000°K.

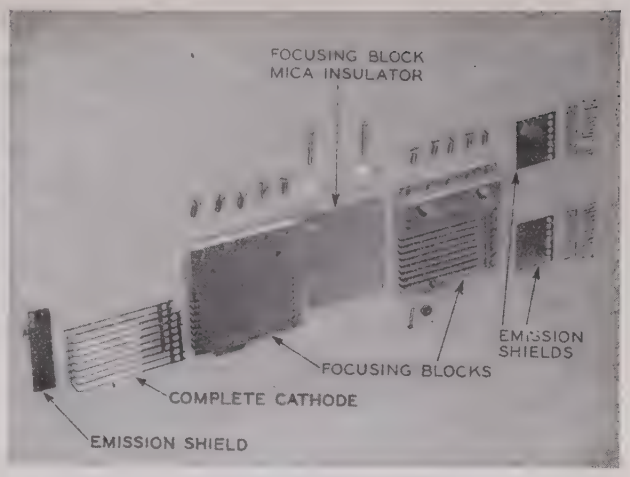


Fig. 3—The filament, filament shields, and focusing blocks.

The No. 1 grids consist of molybdenum bars silver-soldered to water-cooled tubes which also carry the neutralizing elements. These grids are supported by the glass of the metal-to-glass vacuum seal mounted in the header plates as shown in Fig. 4. This figure shows the

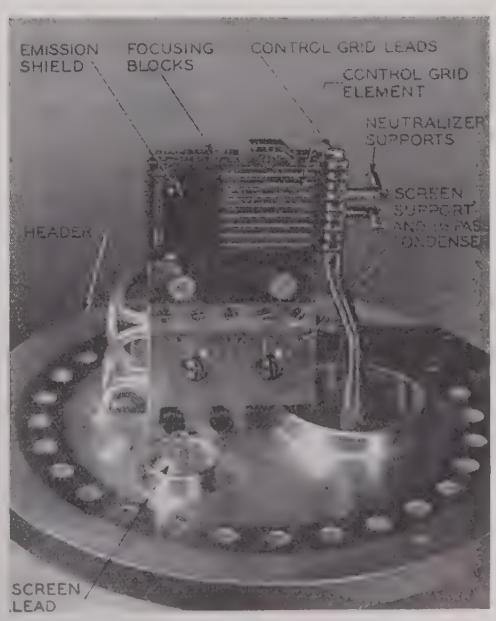


Fig. 4—The header with filament, filament shields, No. 2 mounting blocks, and No. 1 grids mounted.

header plate with the cathode structure, and the No. 1 grids mounted and prepared for the addition of the No. 2 grids.

The two No. 2 grids are combined into a single structure which is rigidly clamped to the cathode assembly, and is insulated therefrom by mica sheets which provide a by-pass capacitance to the cathode. The No. 2 grid elements are molybdenum rods and are silver-soldered to water-cooled copper plates. This structure with attached shields is shown in Fig. 5. The cooling of the electrode

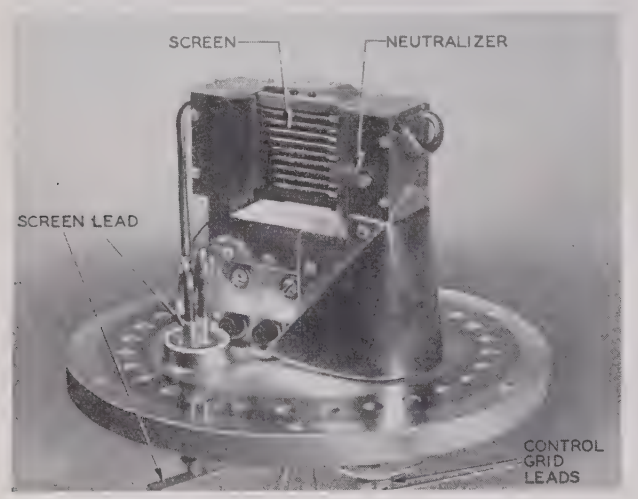


Fig. 5—A completed header assembly showing No. 2 grids and neutralizers mounted.

elements is obtained by thermal conduction along the length of the elements to the cooled supporting copper plates.

The complete header assembly containing all of the electrodes excepting the anodes is shown in Fig. 5. The neutralizing tabs are shown mounted on elements fixed to the No. 1 grids and projecting through apertures in the No. 2 grid blocks. This use of a header for mounting the close-spaced electrodes permits accurate electrode alignment and inspection before the anode dome is mounted.

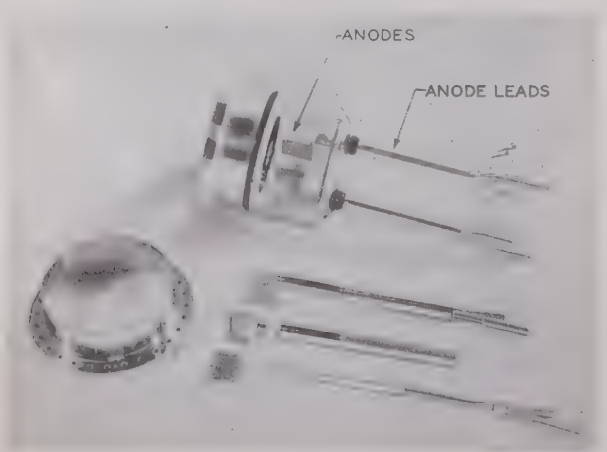


Fig. 6—The anode dome assembly, anode parts, and leads.

The anode dome and the details of the anode construction are shown in Fig. 6. The anode face has an area of 6.5 square cm., and is cooled by water circulated in the channels shown. Since the anode cooling water is carried by the anode supporting tube which functions as an element of the output tank circuit, the anode glass seals are water cooled. This cooling is adequate to permit the use of kovar at 300 Mc, if a high-conductivity coating is applied to kovar as previously described. With cooling water at a pressure of 60 pounds per square inch, these anodes have been operated without failure to a dissipation of 6 kw per anode.

The final step in assembly of this tube is the bolting of the anode dome to the header; this compresses the two copper-ring gaskets and provides the final vacuum closure of the envelope. The anodes, anode leads, and anode dome ring can be electroplated, cleaned, and washed before this operation, and are not subjected to any glass-working fires or other heating in making the final vacuum closure. The copper-ring gaskets are made from wire. This compression gasket seal, shown in Fig. 2, has proved to be an entirely satisfactory vacuum-

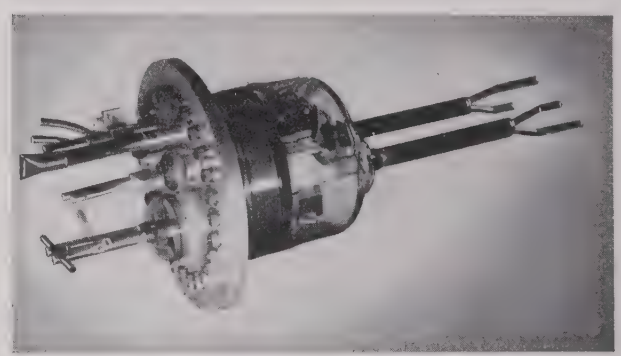


Fig. 7—The duplex tetrode.

TUBE DATA[1]

Direct interelectrode capacitance (each unit).

Grid No. 1 to anode	0.12 $\mu\mu$f
Input	24 $\mu\mu$f
Output	5 $\mu\mu$f
Grid No. 2 by-pass (approximate)	200 $\mu\mu$f
Grid No. 1 to anode feedback with neutralization	0.01 $\mu\mu$f

Filament—3.9 volts—105 amperes single phase

Electrode dissipation (maximum operating values):

Anodes	8 kilowatts total
No. 2 grids	400 watts total
No. 1 grids	50 watts total

Typical operating voltages:

Anode	5000–6000 volts dc
No. 2 grid	700 volts dc
No. 1 grid (cutoff bias)	—180 volts dc

Cooling water flow at 60 pounds per square inch pressure:

Anode of each unit	0.6 gallons per minute
Filament blocks in series	0.25 gallons per minute
No. 2 grid	0.3 gallons per minute
No. 1 grids in series	0.25 gallons per minute

[1] In the 8D21, or commercial model, some changes in these data were found necessary because of manufacturing techniques.

tight joint which can be used both in demountable and in sealed-off tubes.

A completely processed tube is shown in the operating position in Fig. 7. This position is determined by the filament, which must hang vertically to prevent distortion and sagging. The tube is supported by the header plate rim, which acts as a flange, and which when installed is bolted to the shield wall separating the input and output circuits.

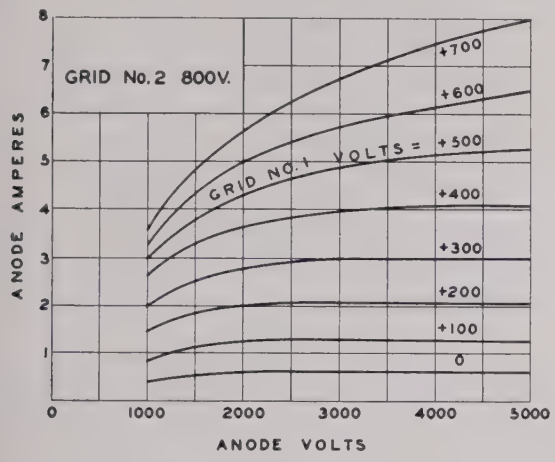


Fig. 8—Anode characteristics for each unit.

The static characteristics are given in Figs. 8, 9, and 10. A modulation characteristic, shown in Fig. 11, was obtained at 288 Mc with a total output bandwidth of 16 Mc. A maximum power output of 10 kw was obtained at an efficiency of 60 per cent. The instantaneous bias at this point was 100 volts positive with respect to

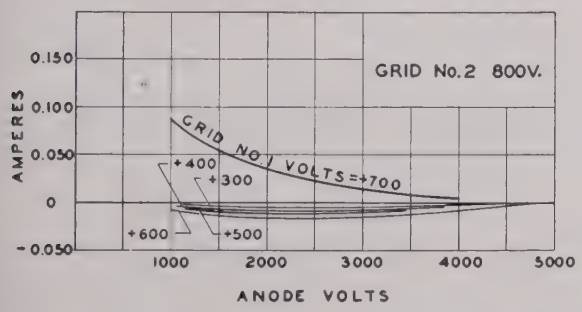


Fig. 9—No. 1 grid characteristics for each unit.

the cathode. In the television application the bias at the maximum of the synchronizing pulse may be reduced to zero or made positive to reduce the amplitude of the rf grid driving voltage. This does not substantially change the required modulating voltage.

Under power output and bandwidth conditions as given above, a power gain at maximum power output of 25 to 30 is obtained. The driving power in these tests was approximately 350 watts. When the tube is used as a 5-kw amplifier with a bandwidth less than 1 Mc, power gains in excess of 100 are obtainable. These power gains for either application are not obtainable at 300 Mc, unless low-loss grid seals such as described in this paper are used.

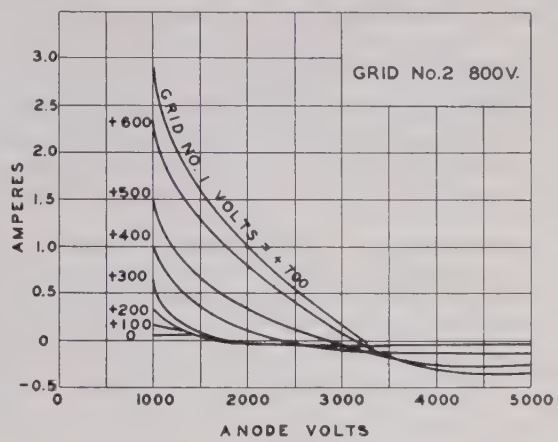


Fig. 10—No. 2 grid characteristics for each unit.

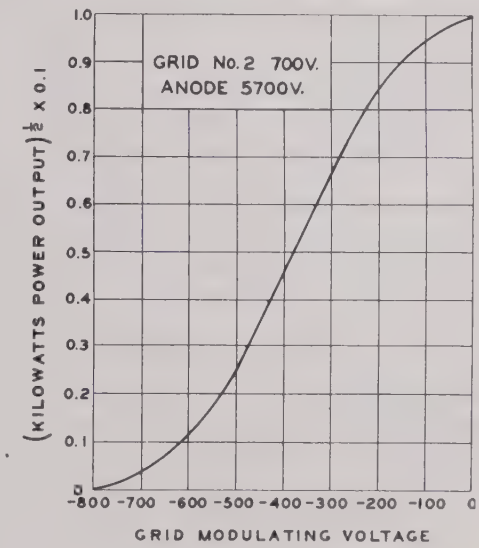


Fig. 11—Modulation characteristic.

Acknowledgment

The authors wish to express their appreciation to V. K. Zworykin, of the RCA Laboratories, whose vision, initiative, and constant interest made these developments possible. They also wish to express thanks to L. P. Garner, of the RCA Victor Division, at Lancaster, Pa., who was associated with the senior author during the development of many tubes and test structures which served as a background for these developments. We are indebted to L. S. Nergaard, of the RCA Laboratories, for circuit designs, tests, and measurements at 288 Mc.

Electrostatically Focused Radial-Beam Tube*

A. M. SKELLETT†, MEMBER, IRE

Summary—The addition of the electrostatic field between coaxial cylinders to a uniform electrostatic field provides the correct properties for focusing a beam of electrons in the positive direction of the uniform field. In the electrostatically focused radial-beam tube, this combination of fields produces a single radial electron beam which may be rotated by rotating the uniform component of the combined fields. The center coaxial electrode may be either the cathode or a grid surrounding the cathode, and the outer coaxial electrode is broken up into segments to which polyphase potentials are applied. At any instant these polyphase potentials produce an approximation to a uniform field which rotates at the cyclic frequency of the polyphase potentials.

A number of tubes have been made incorporating these principles. Details are given of such a tube with twelve anodes and twelve associated control grids which is no larger than an ordinary radio receiving tube. The beam current is of the order of 1 ma and the frequency of rotation is limited only by the inductance and capacitance of the elements of the tube. This tube is an inertialess distributor with applications to time-division multiplex, telemetering, remote control, and other high-speed switching functions.

Introduction

AN EARLIER PAPER[1] described the magnetically focused radial-beam tube in which a radial beam of electrons is focused and deflected (usually rotated) by means of a magnetic field. This tube requires an external magnetic structure, and is practically limited in rotational speed to about 10,000 cps by the losses in this structure. The electrostatically focused radial-beam tube is similar in general structure and principle, but since the focus and rotation are obtained with an internal electrostatic field the external structure is not required, and there is no practical limit to the speed of rotation other than that set by the capacities of the tube elements themselves. It has one disadvantage in comparison with the magnetically focused type; the beam current for the same applied voltages is less.

The Electrostatic Field

The field within the tube consists of a uniform electrostatic field (positive on one side of a diameter and negative on the other) that has been distorted by the presence of a cylindrical cathode at its center on which a positive potential has been applied. Stated in another way, it is the combination of a uniform field like that between two parallel planes, and a cylindrical field like that between two coaxial cylinders. Since the structure is a cylindrical one, it is necessary to apply a number of potentials to the outer boundary in order to obtain the uniform field. Ideally, the potential varies around the periphery according to the cosine θ (see Fig. 1). This potential distribution alone would produce a uniform field with the center a point of zero potential.

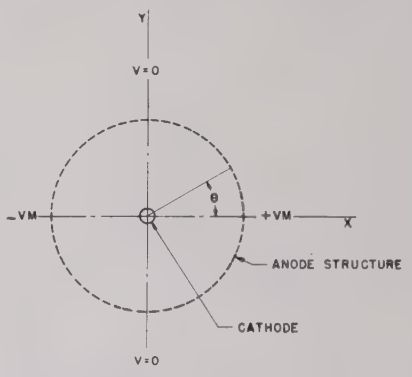


Fig. 1—Ideal cosine distribution of potentials around the anode structure of the tube.

Let the direction of the field E be parallel to the Y axis, and the Z axis chosen as parallel to the axis of the cylinder. It can be shown that the anode cylinder may be replaced by two line images within the space occupied by the cathode cylinder, for these would give a circular equipotential line at the position of the cathode. If the potential of the cathode cylinder is zero, this analysis gives for the potential V_F of any point in the field outside the cathode cylinder

$$V_F = \left(Er - \frac{ER_1^2}{r}\right)\cos\theta$$

where r and θ are polar co-ordinates and R_1 is the radius of the cathode cylinder.

For a potential on the cathode other than zero the field is altered, and to get an expression for this new configuration consider first the field due only to the potential on the cylinder. This gives

$$E' = \frac{V_c}{r}\,\frac{1}{\log\dfrac{R_2}{R_1}}$$

where R_2 is the radius of the anode structure and V_c is the potential difference between anode and cathode cylinders. The potential V_F' at any point r is

$$V_F' = \int_r^{R_2} \frac{V_c\,dr}{r\log\dfrac{R_2}{R_1}}$$

or

$$V_F' = \frac{V_c\log\dfrac{R_2}{r}}{\log\dfrac{R_2}{R_1}}$$

* Decimal classification: R339. Original manuscript received by the Institute, May 24, 1948. Presented, 1948 IRE National Convention, March 25, 1948, New York, N. Y.

† National Union Radio Corporation, Orange, N. J.

[1] A. M. Skellett, "The magnetically focussed radial beam vacuum tube," *Bell Sys. Tech. Jour.*, vol. 23, pp. 190–202; April, 1944.

since the anode is assumed to be at zero potential.

Superposing this field on the previous one gives

$$V_F = \left(Er - \frac{ER_1^2}{r}\right)\cos\theta + V_c \frac{\log \frac{R_2}{r}}{\log \frac{R_2}{R_1}}$$

where logarithms are to the base e.

For the case under consideration, V_c will be the potential of the cathode with respect to the average potential of the anode structure. Varying this potential changes the width of the beam, and it is, therefore, the focusing voltage. By means of this voltage the beam can be reduced to zero width, or it can be opened up so wide that it covers most of the tube and there is effectively a negative beam in the opposite direction.

This field is plotted on Fig. 2 for the following values of the variables taken from the twelve-anode tube described below under focusing conditions: $R_2 = 0.828$ cm and $R_1 = 0.203$ cm, $V_c = 94$ volts, and $V_{max} = 250$ volts. It

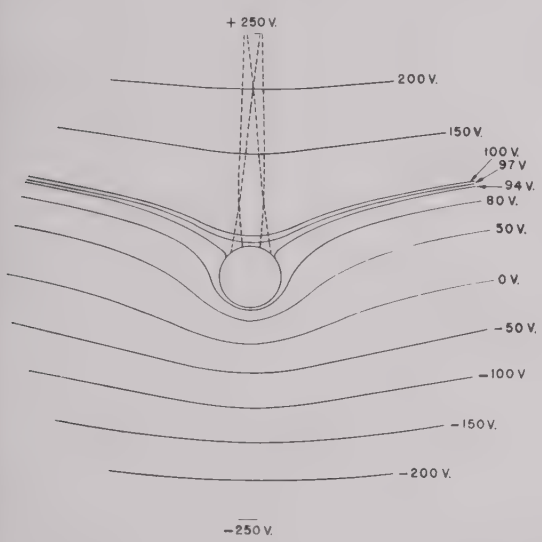


Fig. 2—Electrostatic field within the tube with the ideal cosine distribution. Electron trajectories are shown as dotted lines.

may be seen that the curvature of the equipotential lines is such as to give concentration to the electrons about the radius where $\theta = 0$. The electron trajectories shown by dashed lines were obtained by setting up the mechanical analogue of this field with a rubber membrane in the usual way,[2] and following the trajectories by means of steel balls released from the position of the cathode.

The potential gradient around the cathode is important in determining the angular spread of the electrons that leave the cathode. It may be shown that the gradient is zero at the angles for which

$$\cos\theta = \frac{V_c R_2}{2V_m R_1} \frac{1}{\log \frac{R_2}{R_1}}$$

[2] P. H. J. A. Kleynen, "The motion of an electron in a two dimensional electrostatic field," *Philips. Tech. Rev.*, vol. 2, pp. 321–352; November, 1937.

where V_m is the maximum of the voltages applied to the anode cylinder.

For the focal conditions mentioned above and shown on Fig. 2, this gives

$$\theta = \pm 54^\circ\ 32'\ 30''.$$

This is the angle at which the gradient changes sign, and thus the emergent angle for this set of voltages is 109° 5′.

Similar focusing conditions apply if the cathode cylinder is replaced by a grid with a cathode located within it. The potential of the grid cylinder becomes the focusing voltage, and the cathode may be operated several volts positive with respect to the grid in the usual manner.

In actual tubes the cosine distribution of potential is approximated by separating the anode structure into a small number of elements and applying polyphase potentials to them. At any instant in the cycle these potentials approximate the cosine potential distribution. The circuit for the power supply to the tube is shown on Fig. 3. The position of the beam is shown for the instant when phase 1 is passing through its maximum value. V_c is the focusing voltage.

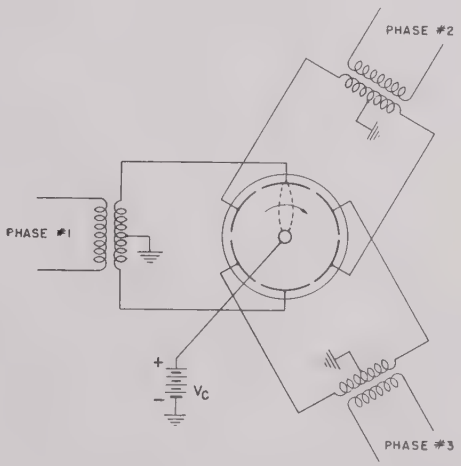


Fig. 3—Circuit of the polyphase supply and focusing voltage.

Tubes have been made using only two-phase supply (four screen elements), but the deviation from the ideal cosine distribution in this case is so great that focus conditions vary markedly between the center and edge of a screen element.

The Twelve-Anode Tube

Fig. 4 shows the internal structure of the twelve-anode tube. Here the anode cylinder referred to above has been replaced by the screen elements, and the beam is focused in the space between the cathode and these elements. The polyphase potentials are applied to the six screen elements in the circuit shown in Fig. 3.

A window in each of these elements lets the beam through to a control grid and to an anode. Other windows are provided between adjacent screen elements to

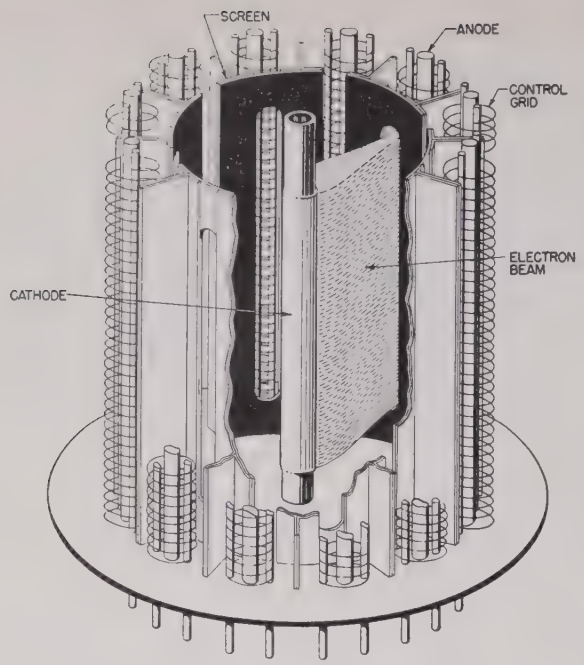


Fig. 4—Internal structure of the twelve-anode tube.

provide twelve windows in all. There are thus twelve control grids and twelve anodes. Fins on the outer side of the screen elements prevent electrons that are directed toward one anode from reaching an adjacent one.

The anodes in this particular tube are in the form of rods centrally located within their control grids. This design is effective in assuring that all electrons must pass through the grid in order to reach the anode. It gives a good control-grid characteristic.

Fig. 5 is the anode-current versus grid-voltage characteristic for one of the twelve sections of the tube taken with the beam directed toward that section. For an applied three-phase voltage of 285 rms (400 volts peak), the beam current varies linearly with grid voltage up to approximately 1 ma.

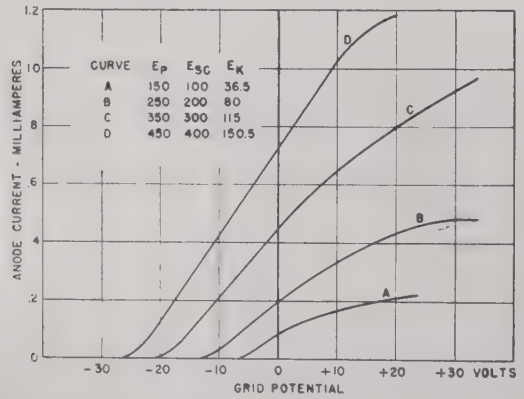


Fig. 5—Grid-anode characteristics of one section of the twelve-anode tube.

Fig. 6 is a photograph of the twelve-anode tube with a special large base to keep the leads widely separated.

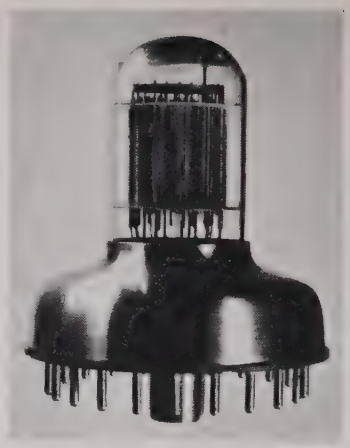


Fig. 6—Photograph of the twelve-anode tube.

Power-Supply Considerations

For applications where three-phase power at the desired frequency is not available, the circuit shown in Fig. 7 is useful. Here a single-phase supply is split into six phases by means of three series capacitors in connection with the inductances of the transformers. Since the power required is less than 1 watt, these transformers may be very small.

A cathode series resistance is used to provide the focusing voltage. It may be varied to focus the beam. The density of the current is very nearly constant for all focus conditions; e.g., if the beam cross section is increased by a factor of two, the beam current is increased in proportion.

The grid-bias voltage may be derived from the cathode resistor by tapping down from the cathode, and if the anode supply voltages are obtained from extra windings on the three transformers, it is possible to operate the tube satisfactorily without any dc supply.

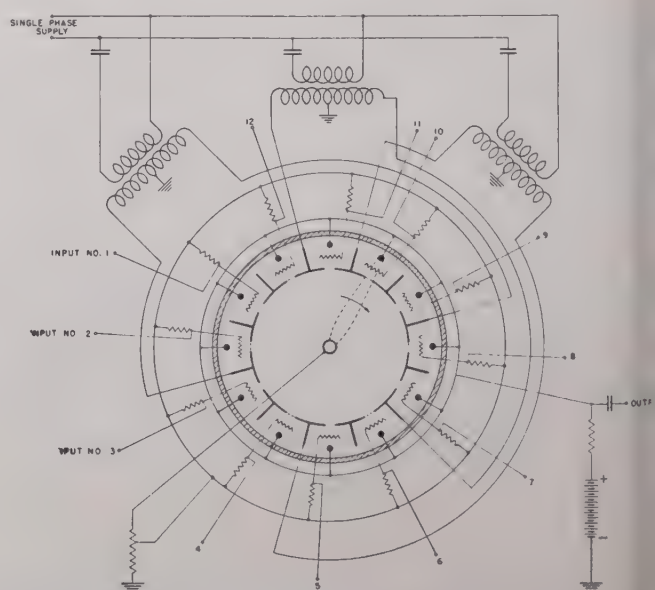


Fig. 7—Complete circuit for operation of the twelve-anode tube from single-phase supply.

Other Tube Designs

Two types of the twelve-anode tube are available. In one, the grid leads are all brought out individually with a common lead for the anodes. In the other there is a common grid lead and the anode leads are brought out separately. The first type may be used at the input of a multiplex communication or telemetering system where twelve channels feed into the tube, and the second may be used as a distributor at the output end of such a system.

Tubes have been made with as many as forty-eight anodes or sections, but as the number of anodes is increased the beam current decreases. If the diameter of the screen structure is held constant, the beam must be narrower and hence the beam current is reduced. If the screen diameter is increased without increasing the axial length of the tube, it becomes difficult to maintain the electrostatic field configuration near the ends of the cathode because of mica charging, and special electrodes must be added to cover the micas in order to maintain focus.

A thirty-element tube is in the final stages of development. It also uses six-phase voltages and is similar in most respects to the twelve-anode tube just described. It will be described in a later paper.

Applications

These tubes are ideally suited to multiplex telegraphy and telephony, and to telemetering. Their usefulness is not limited, however, to these fields. For example, they provide an excellent means of scanning a number of circuits or points at high speed; they are useful as frequency multipliers, harmonic, and tone generators; and, by varying the shape of the windows, predetermined wave forms may be generated. Advantages of these tubes over other electron-beam commutators such as the cyclophon[3] are their small size and low voltage requirements.

Acknowledgments

Some preliminary development work on this type of tube was carried on at the Bell Telephone Laboratories prior to the war. This work is described in Patent No. 2,433,403, issued on December 30, 1947. The work described herein was done at the National Union Research Division with the able assistance of H. J. Koch, P. W. Charton, W. L. Hyde, and Miss Catherine Stephens.

[3] D. D. Grieg, J. J. Glauber, and S. Moskowitz, "Cyclophon: a multipurpose electronic computor tube," Proc. I.R.E., vol. 35, pp. 1251–1258; November, 1947.

High-Power Interdigital Magnetrons*

JOSEPH F. HULL† and ARTHUR W. RANDALS†

Summary—**This paper deals with the pill-box-cavity interdigital magnetrons operating in the cavity mode. An analysis of the cathode coupling problem indicates the desirability of cathode decoupling chokes presenting a capacitive impedance to the cathode-anode space. Cold tests and operating tests have confirmed this analysis. The high efficiency to be expected from operation in this mode has been realized, measured efficiencies being comparable to the best obtained in conventional magnetrons. Peak power outputs up to 1.4 kw and continuous outputs up to 500 watts have been obtained in the vicinity of 10 cm wavelength, with efficiencies of about 70 per cent. Tubes built without cathode decoupling chokes operated unstably, gave little power in the cavity mode, and had a strong tendency to operate in the first-order mode.**

Introduction

BECAUSE OF wide-tuning possibilities and simplicity of mechanical structure, it has been considered desirable to investigate the potentialities of the pill-box-cavity interdigital magnetron as a generator of high-power centimeter waves. Most of the work on this type of magnetron to date has been done in the first-order mode. (A complete description of the modes follows shortly.) Benedict and others have developed a glass-enclosed, external-cavity, interdigital magnetron[1] which gives a peak pulse power output of 80 watts at 40 per cent efficiency. The first-order-mode resonant wavelength was approximately 6 cm. Crawford and Hare have developed an all-metal interdigital magnetron[2] which gives a continuous-wave power output of 50 watts at about the same frequency and efficiency. Attempts to operate these interdigital magnetrons in the cavity mode have met with little success because of the very strong tendency of the tubes to oscillate in the first-order mode.

If the cause of moding trouble is eliminated, the cavity mode offers the greater possibilities for both high-power output and high efficiency, because in this mode the tooth structure presents an uncontaminated

* Decimal classification: R339.2×R355.912.1. Original manuscript received by the Institute, April 12, 1948; revised manuscript received, June 8, 1948. Presented, IRE Electron Tube Conference, Syracuse, N. Y., June, 1947.

† Evans Signal Corps Engineering Laboratory, Belmar, N. J.

[1] G. D. O'Neill, "Separate cavity tunable magnetrons," *Electronic Ind.*, vol. 5, pp. 48–50, 23; June, 1946.

[2] F. H. Crawford and Milton D. Hare, "Tunable squirrel cage magnetron—the Donutron," Proc. I.R.E., vol. 35, pp. 361–369; April, 1947.

π-mode field configuration to the interaction space. The greater portion of the effort of this project was directed toward obtaining good operation in the cavity mode. Fig. 1, shows a pill-box interdigital magnetron cavity.

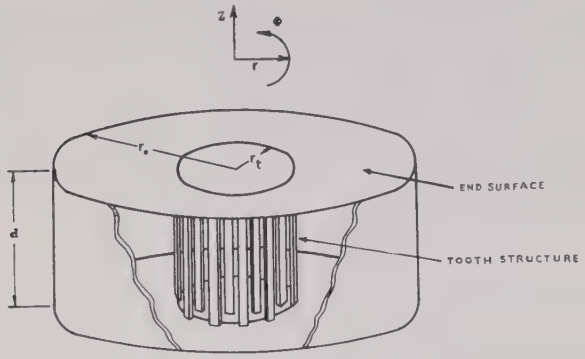


Fig. 1—Interdigital magnetron cavity.

It consists of a toroidal shell with its inner surface replaced by interleaving teeth extending from the end surfaces.

Description of Modes in Interdigital Magnetrons

In order to better describe the operational and cold-test results of these tubes, a brief description of the modes will be given. The field configurations, as well as current and voltage distributions in the *cavity mode*, will first be described. The local fields at the tooth structure are neglected.

Fig. 2(a) shows the currents on one of the end surfaces of the cavity in a view parallel to the axis. The currents in the opposite end are in the opposite direction. Fig. 2(b) shows the currents and electric fields in a cross-sectional view. The arrows with solid barbs indicate the current flow, and the arrows with the open barbs indicate electric fields. All the magnetic field lines are concentric with the axis, and are shown by dotted lines. The magnetic field intensity is independent of Z and ϕ, but varies with r as the sum of Bessel functions of the first and second kinds. The electric field is in the Z direction and is independent of Z and ϕ, but also varies with r as the sum of Bessel functions of the first and second kinds.

Fig. 2—Field and current configurations in an interdigital magnetron cavity resonating in the cavity mode.

Fig. 2(c) shows a rolled-out view of the anode as seen from the axis. The important feature of the cavity mode is that the current and potential distributions do not vary with angular displacement, and lines of magnetic flux within the cavity do not thread through the tooth structure.

The field and current configurations in the *first-order mode* will now be described. Again the local fields at the teeth are neglected and the cathode is assumed to be absent. Fig. 3(a) shows the current flow in one end surface of the cavity. The current flow in the opposite end surface is in the opposite direction, at all corresponding points. The magnetic field is independent of Z. Both radial and tangential components of the magnetic field vary sinusoidally with ϕ and are in space quadrature; they also vary with r as the sum of Bessel functions of the first and second kinds. The electric field is in the Z direction only, is independent of Z, varies sinusoidally with ϕ, and varies with r as the sum of Bessel functions of the first and second kinds. The dotted lines indicate magnetic flux lines, which are orthogonal to the lines of current flow. It is to be noted that there are both radial and tangential components of magnetic field at the tooth structure, and that therefore a threading of the magnetic flux through the teeth and interaction space occurs. Fig. 3(c) shows the current and potential distributions on the anode faces as seen looking outward from the axis. It may be seen that they vary sinusoidally through one cycle around the anode circumference.

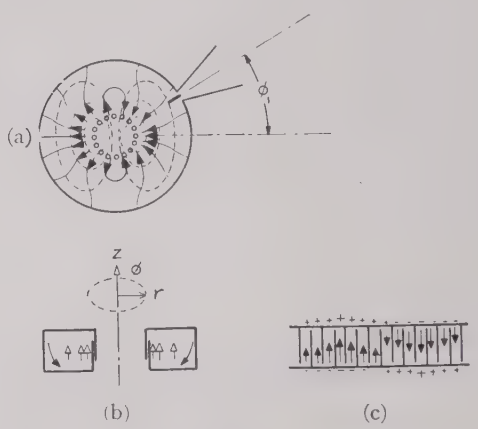


Fig. 3—Field and current configurations in an interdigital magnetron cavity resonating in the first-order mode.

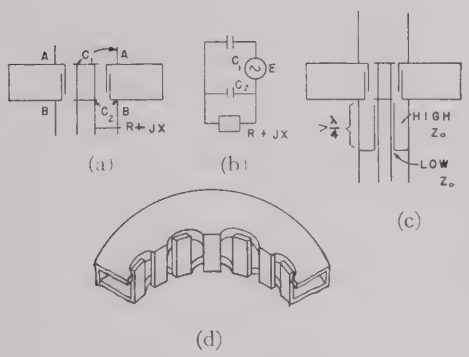
The field and current distributions in the nth-order mode are analogous to those of the first-order mode, but have n sinusoidal variations around the circumference of the anode.

Analysis of Power-Output Coupling by the Cathode in the Cavity Mode

Fig. 4(a) shows an interdigital magnetron cavity and athode, and Fig. 4(b) is the equivalent circuit for the athode structure. C_1 is essentially the capacitance be-ween the top end hat and the surface A, and C_2 is the apacitance between the bottom end hat and the surface 3. $R+jX$ is the impedance between the cathode sup-ort and the outside of the cavity looking outward from he cathode. From Fig. 4(b) one may obtain:

ower dissipated in R

$$= \frac{E^2R}{R^2\left(1+\frac{C_2}{C_1}\right)^2+\left(X\left[1+\frac{C_2}{C_1}\right]-\frac{1}{\omega C_1}\right)^2}. \quad (1)$$



ig. 4—These drawings illustrate the problem of power output coupling by the cathode, and how this problem may be resolved.

A brief analysis of (1) shows that, if X is a large apacitive reactance and if R is small, the power coupled ut by the cathode is small. The power coupled out ay be further reduced by decreasing C_1. C_2 must also e made small in order to isolate the bottom end hat rom surface B so that the cathode does not assume the otential of B. C_1 and C_2 may be decreased by cutting ecesses in the end surfaces A and B between the teeth nd allowing the teeth to extend through to the outer ide of the opposite end surface as shown in Fig. 4(d). his tends to neutralize the capacitance between the urfaces A and B and the end hats of the cathode. This onstruction will hereinafter be referred to as *overlapped oth structure.*

X may be made to be a large capacitive reactance y inserting a choke which is longer than a quarter avelength into the coaxial line consisting of the athode support and the outer tubular housing as shown n Fig. 4(c). The capacitive reactance of the choke adds o the reactive component of this coaxial-line im-edance to give a total reactive component which has a igh capacitive value. The low-impedance section of ne between the cathode support and the inner diameter of the choke transforms the external cathode-lead impedance to a low value at the open end of the choke. Thus the resistive component of the cathode-lead impedance presented to the magnetron is low.

If the power coupled out by the cathode support is minimized, the rf potential between the cathode support and the inner surface of the choke, or tubular housing below the choke, is small. Therefore the cathode assumes ground potential. This is an important desideratum for obtaining high electronic efficiency, because an electrically unbalanced cathode greatly distorts the rf fields in the interaction space.

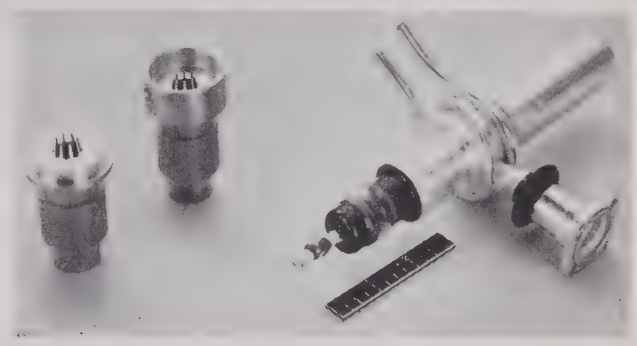


Fig. 5—Interdigital magnetron, ESM-15.

It may be shown in contrast that, for higher-order modes, the transverse electromagnetic mode is not excited in the cathode circuit, because currents contributed by different portions of the circuit cancel. Even an off-center cathode is not serious, provided

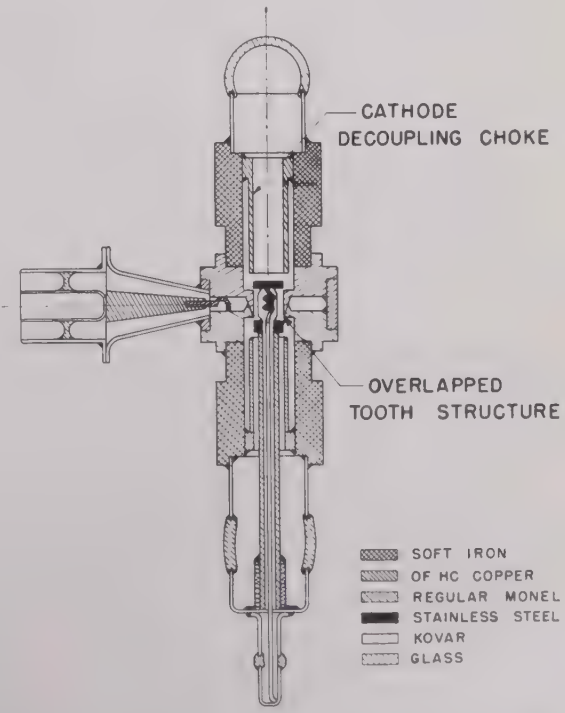


Fig. 6—Cross-sectional view of interdigital magnetron ESM-15.

the axis of the cathode is parallel to the tube axis; but if the cathode is tilted, a large amount of coupling can result.

Operational Results

Tubes which were built according to Fig. 6 oscillated only in the cavity mode and gave power outputs of the order of 1500 watts (peak) at efficiencies between 60 and 80 per cent with 5 per cent duty-cycle pulse operation. Five hundred watts of continuous-wave power output was easily obtained from these tubes at efficiencies between 65 and 75 per cent. The 500-watt cw output level did not represent the upper limit, but it was thought inadvisable to subject the output seal to more rf power loss. Operational curves for these tubes are found in Figs. 7, 8, and 9. Another observation was that at 500 watts cw output the back-bombardment

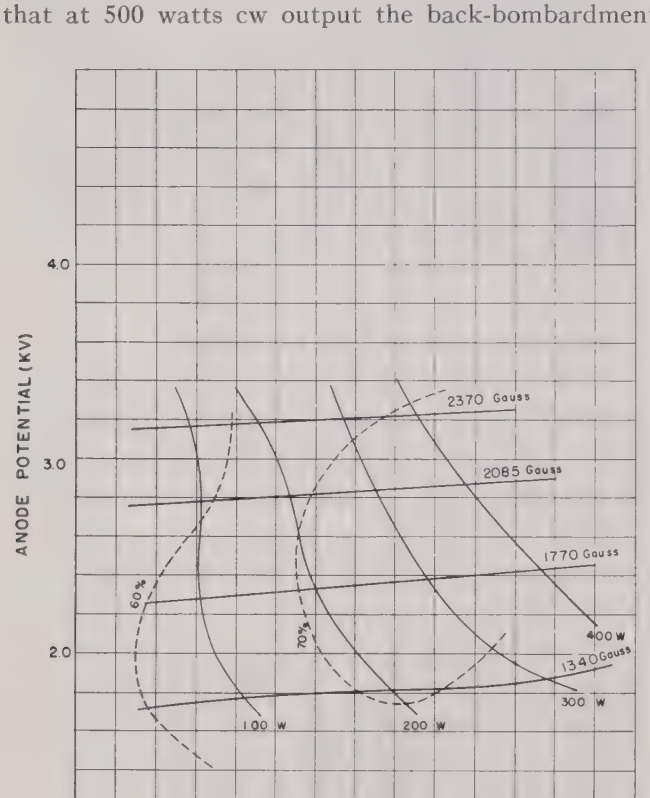


Fig. 7—Continuous-wave performance plot of interdigital magnetron ESM-15-3, operating into a reflectionless line. This tube has an oxide-coated cathode and cathode decoupling chokes, and operates only in the cavity mode with a mean resonant wavelength of 11.5 cm.

power was less than 18 watts. The tubes were operated with a barium-oxide-coated cathode which required 6 volts at 3 amperes for primary heating power, and at 500 watts output the cathodes were subjected to no disastrous punishment.

One tube, ESM-15-2, was built without the cathode decoupling chokes. It oscillated in either the cavity mode or first-order mode, depending on the anode voltage and output impedance. The stability of operation

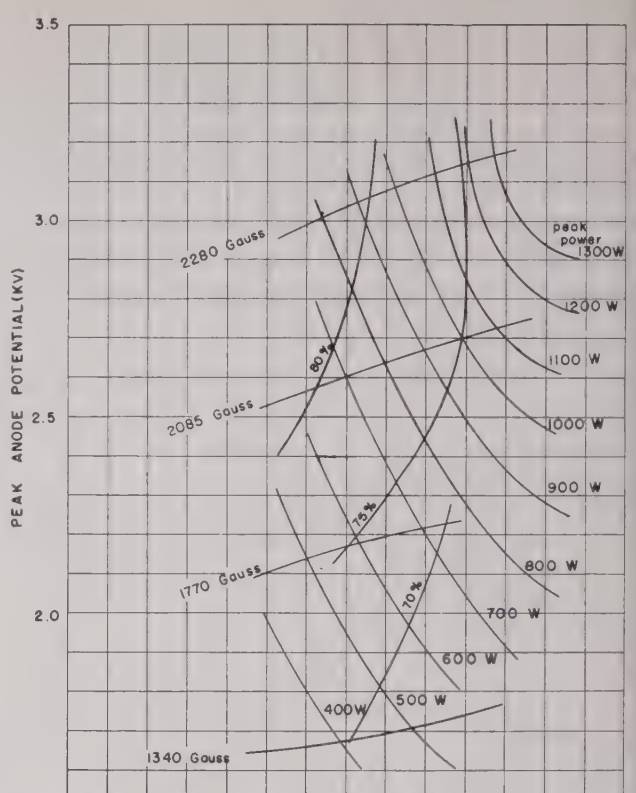


Fig. 8—Performance plot of interdigital magnetron ESM-15-3 (see Fig. 7). Pulse operation, 5 per cent duty cycle, 5 μs pulse length. Operation is only in the cavity mode, 11.5 cm mean resonant wavelength.

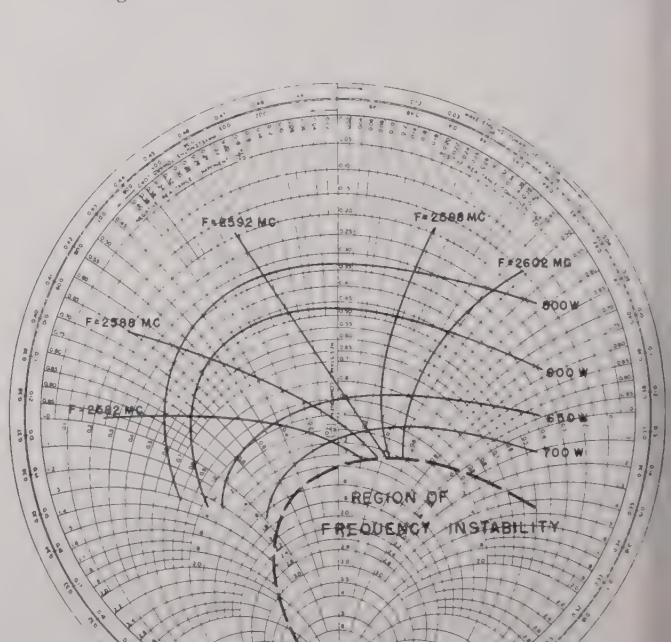


Fig. 9—Rieke Diagram, interdigital magnetron ESM-15-3 (see Fig. 7). Pulse operation, 5 per cent duty cycle, 5 μs pulse length, 0.380 amperes peak anode current, 2.76 kw peak anode voltage, 2260 gauss magnetic field, 11.58 cm mean resonant wavelength.

of this tube was very poor. The maximum power obtainable in the cavity mode before moding occurred was about 250 watts, and when the current was increased in an attempt to obtain more power, the tube oscillated in the first-order mode. Although this tube did not operate satisfactorily in the cavity mode, the operational results for the first-order mode may be of interest. In the first-order mode of oscillation, when looking into a reasonably reflectionless line, peak power outputs of 1600 watts at 50 per cent efficiency were obtained with 5 per cent duty-cycle pulse operation. However, the power decreased rather rapidly as the standing-wave ratio was increased. Operational curves for this tube are shown in Figs. 10 and 11. Relatively good over-all efficiency was obtained in this tube without the use of cavity-mode suppressors such as "phase-reversal teeth,"[2] vanes in the cavity, or radial slots at the high-voltage points in the end surfaces of the cavity. With any or all three of these features, however, the magnetron would probably oscillate only in the first-order mode, and operation would be much more stable, since the moding tendency would be diminished.

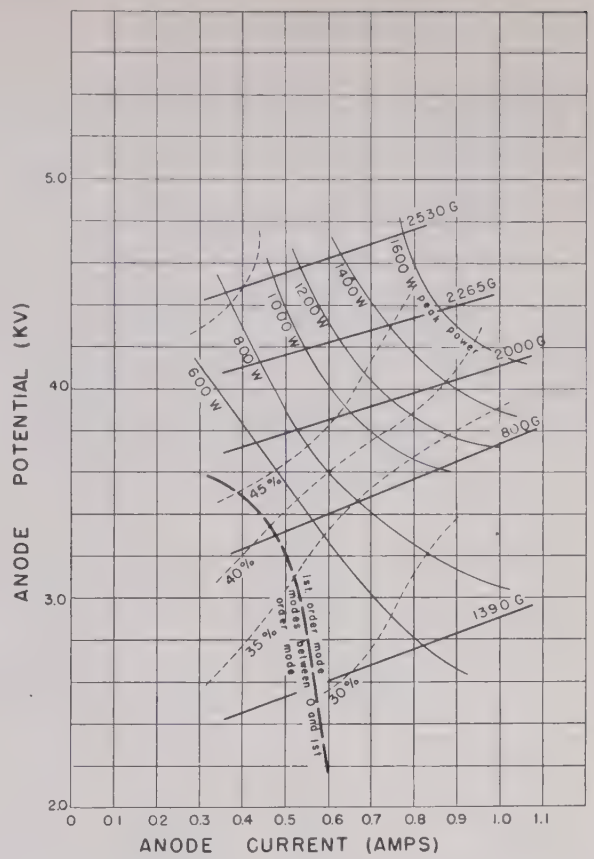


Fig. 10—Performance plot of interdigital magnetron, ESM-15-2, operating into reflectionless line. Pulse operation, 5 per cent duty cycle, 5 μs pulse length. This tube is identical to ESM-15-3, except that it has no cathode decoupling chokes. The dark line represents the boundary of moding between cavity and first-order modes. Below this line the tube operates unstably between the cavity and first-order modes. Operation above the line is in the first-order mode only.

Cold-Test Results and Comparisons of Measured Results with Theoretical Calculations

Expressions for resonant wavelength and external Q of interdigital magnetron cavities were derived by applying Maxwell's equations (subject to appropriate boundary conditions) to the region inside the cavity. The resonant wavelength equation in the nth-order mode is:

$$\lambda = -\frac{\alpha c d}{\epsilon_1 r_t} \cdot \frac{\left[J_n\left(\frac{2\pi r_t}{\lambda}\right) - \frac{J_n\left(\frac{2\pi r_0}{\lambda}\right)}{N_n\left(\frac{2\pi r_0}{\lambda}\right)} N_n\left(\frac{2\pi r_t}{\lambda}\right) \right]}{\left\{ J_{n-1}\left(\frac{2\pi r_t}{\lambda}\right) - \left(\frac{n\lambda}{2\pi r_t} + \frac{n^2 M \lambda \Delta r}{2\pi r_t^2}\right) J_n\left(\frac{2\pi r_t}{\lambda}\right) - \frac{J_n\left(\frac{2\pi r_0}{\lambda}\right)}{N_n\left(\frac{2\pi r_0}{\lambda}\right)} \left[N_{n-1}\left(\frac{2\pi r_t}{\lambda}\right) - \left(\frac{n\lambda}{2\pi r_t} + \frac{n^2 M \lambda \Delta r}{2\pi r_t^2}\right) N_n\left(\frac{2\pi r_t}{\lambda}\right) \right] \right\}} \tag{2}$$

where

r_t = mean radius of tooth structure
ϵ_1 = permittivity of free space
α = number of teeth
d = cavity height
c = capacitance between teeth per tooth
Δr = radial tooth thickness
r_0 = radius of cavity
λ = wavelength at resonance
$J_n(\ )$ = Bessel function of 1st kind and nth order
$N_n(\ )$ = Bessel function of 2nd kind and nth order
M = factor of concentration of magnetic flux which threads through the tooth structure. Approximately equal to the ratio of the distance between tooth centers to gap between teeth.

(All quantities in mks units.)

For the cavity mode, these constants were:

$c = 0.164\ \mu\mu f$
$\alpha = 16$
$r_t = 0.00595$ meter
$r_0 = 0.0175$ meter
$\Delta r = 0.00127$ meter
$d = 0.00477$ meter
$n = 0$.

(The tooth capacitance C was both calculated and measured by cold test means.) From (2) the resonant wavelengths for the cavity mode ($n=0$) and first-order mode were calculated to be 10.4 and 7.8 cm, respectively. The reasonant wavelengths of these modes were measured both with and without the cathode. These values are shown in Table I.

TABLE I

Mode Order	Cathode Out		Cathode In
	λ Calculated	λ Measured	λ Measured
Cavity Mode	10.4 cm	10.87 cm	11.27 cm
First-Order Mode	7.8 cm	7.5 cm	7.23 cm

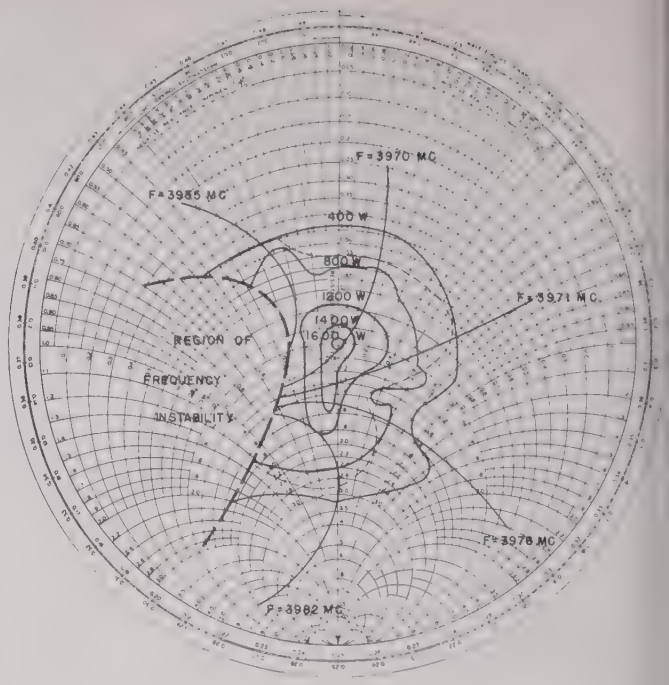


Fig. 11—Rieke diagram, interdigital magnetron ESM-15-2 (see Fig. 10). Pulse operation, 5 per cent duty cycle, 5 μs pulse length 0.712 amperes peak anode current, 4.3 kv peak anode voltage, 2260 gauss magnetic field, 7.551 cm mean resonant wavelength. The dotted line represents boundary of moding between cavity and first-order modes. In the region outside of the boundary the tube operates unstably between the cavity and first-order modes. Operation inside the boundary is in the first-order mode only.

The formula for external Q,(Q_x) in the nth-order mode is:

$$Q_x = \frac{adW_n\left(Z_0 + \dfrac{\omega^2 L_l^2}{Z_0}\right)}{S^2\omega\mu_1\epsilon_1 \cos^2(n\phi_1)\left[J_{n-1}\left(\dfrac{2\pi r_0}{\lambda}\right) - \dfrac{J_n\left(\dfrac{2\pi r_0}{\lambda}\right)}{N_n\left(\dfrac{2\pi r_0}{\lambda}\right)} N_{n-1}\left(\dfrac{2\pi r_0}{\lambda}\right)\right]^2} \tag{3}$$

where

$$W_n = \pi\epsilon_1 \int_{r_t}^{r_0} r\left[J_n\left(\frac{2\pi r}{\lambda}\right) - \frac{J_n\left(\dfrac{2\pi r_0}{\lambda}\right)}{N_n\left(\dfrac{2\pi r_0}{\lambda}\right)} N_n\left(\frac{2\pi r}{\lambda}\right)\right]^2 lr + \frac{d\alpha c}{2}\left[J_n\left(\frac{2\pi r_t}{\lambda}\right) - \frac{J_n\left(\dfrac{2\pi r_0}{\lambda}\right)}{N_n\left(\dfrac{2\pi r_0}{\lambda}\right)} N_n\left(\frac{2\pi r_t}{\lambda}\right)\right]^2$$

L_l = loop inductance
S = loop area
Z_0 = characteristic impedance of output line (assumed to be reflectionless)
ϕ_1 = angle between position of the loop and current maximum (see Fig. 3(a))
μ_1 = permeability of free space
ϵ_1 = permittivity of free space
$a = 2$ when $n = 0$
$a = 1$ when $n > 0$.

The quantity S^2Q_x for the cavity mode was calculated to be:

$$S^2Q_x = 1.86\ \text{cm}^4.$$

TABLE II

Tube No.	S (loop area)	Q_x (calc.)	Q_x (meas.)
ESM-15-1	0.136 cm²	100	100
ESM-15-2	0.160	73	87
ESM-15-3	0.178	58.6	57.5
ESM-15-4	0.158	75	70.1

TABLE III

Tube No.	Q_x	Q_u	Q_l	Circ. Eff.
ESM-15-1	100	649	86.5	85.6%
ESM-15-2	87	44	29.3	33.7
ESM-15-3	57.5	575	52.3	90.8
ESM-15-4	70.1	280	56.1	80.0

The external Q (cavity mode) was calculated and measured for four magnetrons, ESM-15-1, ESM-15-2, ESM-15-3, and ESM-15-4. These values are tabulated in Table II.

The complete Q measurements for the cavity mode are given in Table III, for four tubes of the ESM-15 series.

All tubes except the ESM-15-2 had cathode decoupling chokes. There is a conspicuous difference between the unloaded Q of this tube and that of the other tubes, which may be interpreted to mean that the cathode in the cavity mode, unless decoupled, acts as a power-output coupler, and causes the same effect as a very lossy cavity. This explains the tendency of the ESM-15-2 to stop oscillating in the cavity mode at the higher power outputs. The circuit efficiency of the ESM-15-2 is 34 per cent, compared to about 85 per cent for the tubes with the cathode decoupling chokes. The effect of the cathode power-output coupling was also definitely demonstrated, during the taking of the cold-test data, by the fact that touching the cathode leads of the ESM-15-2 radically changed the standing-wave ratio at resonance, while similarly touching the leads of the other tubes did not affect the standing-wave ratio.

Conclusions

Substantial evidence has been obtained to show that interdigital magnetrons can be operated satisfactorily in the cavity mode, and will give essentially the same performance as conventional vane-type cavity magnetrons with regard to power output, efficiency, pulling figure, magnetic field, and voltage. Interdigital magnetrons, however, have completely different mode families with inherently wider mode separations than vane-type magnetrons. Interdigital magnetrons operating in the cavity mode have been tuned over wide frequency ranges.[2]

Operation of interdigital magnetrons in the cavity mode, however, requires some kind of cathode decoupling. The analysis of cathode coupling shows that, if a high capacitive impedance is placed in series with the cathode-support impedance, and if the capacitance between the tooth supporting structures and the end hats is reduced to a low value, the power coupling by the cathode is minimized. The requirement of a cathode choke, however, does not seriously restrain the tuning possibilities, because a foreshortened quarter-wave choke essentially fulfills the requirements of a capacitive impedance in series with the cathode-support impedance over a 2 to 1 tuning range.

The cold-test results show that the equations for resonant wavelength and external Q are sufficiently accurate for the cavity mode ($n=0$). These equations have been widely checked. The resonant wavelength equation (2), when $n>0$, has also been shown to be accurate, although this has not been very widely checked. More experimental work is required for evaluating the external-Q equation for the higher-order modes.

Acknowledgments

The authors wish to extend their appreciation for contributions by G. R. Kilgore and D. L. Benedict, who gave valuable suggestions regarding theoretical aspects of the problems.

Correction

The author has called to the attention of the editors an error in the paper, "Antenna Design for Television and FM Reception," by Frederick A. Kolster, which appeared in pages 1242–1248, in the October, 1948, issue of the Proceedings of the I.R.E.

The formula at the top of the left-hand column on page 1243 should read as follows:

$$K = \sqrt{\left[\frac{R^2 - Z_0^2 + X^2}{(R + Z_0)^2 + X^2}\right]^2 + \left[\frac{2ZX}{(R + Z_0)^2 + X^2}\right]^2}.$$

Theory of Models of Electromagnetic Systems*

GEORGE SINCLAIR†, SENIOR MEMBER, IRE

Summary—**Most model measurements are made on models which simulate only the geometrical configurations of the lines of force in the fields of the full-scale system, and thus yield only relative results for many of the properties of the system. It is possible, however, to devise models in which the measurements are on a quantitative or absolute basis in terms of the full-scale system. The conditions to be satisfied in an absolute model for accurate simulation are derived. The limitations imposed on practical models are discussed.**

Introduction

MODELS OF electromagnetic systems have been used for a number of years in studying various properties of such systems and have proved to be a useful tool.[1–12] While in the past the principal applications have been in investigations of the patterns of antennas, models of electromagnetic systems are capable of providing information on any property of the system which is of interest. At the present time most model measurements are made on a relative basis only, but the conditions to be satisfied in order to obtain measurements on an absolute basis are known.[9]

The purpose of this paper is to show the relationship between models for relative measurements and models for absolute measurements, and to discuss the limitations imposed on practical models of electromagnetic fields.

* Decimal classification: 510×537.6. Original manuscript received by the Institute, March 31, 1948. The research described in this paper was conducted in the Antenna Laboratory of the Department of Electrical Engineering, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, under Contract W-36-039sc33634 with the Signal Corps Engineering Laboratories, Fort Monmouth, N. J.

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Types of Models

The usual model-antenna-pattern measurements are made on a type of model which may be called a *qualitative* or *geometrical* model; i.e., a model in which only the geometrical configurations of the lines of force in the field are modeled, no attempt being made to simulate power levels of the full-scale system. A geometrical model directly yields data on those properties of the system which do not depend on power level (such as impedance, polarization, relative antenna patterns, relative patterns of radar echoes, etc.).

If, in addition to simulating the configurations of the lines of force in the field, the power level of the full-scale system is also simulated in the model, the model may be termed a *quantitative* or *absolute* model. This type of model is capable of yielding quantitative data on all electromagnetic properties of the system, so that, for example, measurements could be made of field intensity, radar echo field intensity, absolute radar echoing area, and the like.

Both of the above types of models generally require some sort of *mechanical* model of the material portions of the full-scale system. A mechanical model is thus one in which there is geometrical simularity in the shapes of corresponding material parts.

Requirements for Accurate Simulation of a System[9–11]

The possibility of constructing a model of a given electromagnetic system arises from the linearity of the differential equations (Maxwell's equations) which describe the fields in any electromagnetic system. Therefore, for a model to be possible, it is necessary to exclude from the system nonlinear media (such as ferromagnetic media and ionized media in the presence of magnetic fields as in the ionosphere). It is not necessary to exclude nonhomogeneous media, since Maxwell's equations are valid for nonhomogeneous as well as for homogeneous media. Such media must be linear, however, so that, although the parameters which describe the media may vary from point to point throughout space, they must be independent of time.

Consider a region of space which is occupied by a system of objects (A, B, and C in Fig. 1) fulfilling the requirements of the previous paragraph. Suppose now that a generator is applied to the system and an electromagnetic field is established. It is required to determine the conditions which have to be satisfied in a model of this system to simulate power levels as well as the configurations of the lines of force; i.e., the conditions for an absolute model.

Let any point P in the full-scale system be located by the rectangular co-ordinates x, y, and z. (Rectangular co-ordinates are used in the following analysis for simplicity, but there is no loss in generality since a field is independent of the co-ordinate system used to describe it.) Then any point P' of the model is located by the co-ordinates x', y', and z' in a corresponding model co-ordinate system. The two co-ordinate systems are related by the transformations:

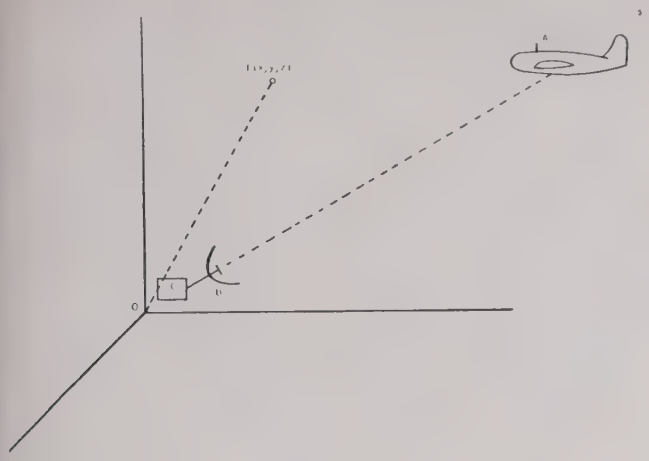

Fig. 1

$$x = px' \tag{1a}$$

$$y = py' \tag{1b}$$

$$z = pz' \tag{1c}$$

where p is the mechanical scale factor. The conditions imposed by (1) represent the principal requirements for a *mechanical* model. The parameter p is often chosen as an integer, but need not be so restricted. The co-ordinates (x, y, z) and (x', y', z') are measured in terms of a unit of length, and the same unit of length (for example, meters) must be used for both systems of co-ordinates.

For an absolute electromagnetic model, the following conditions must be added to those of (1):

$$t = \gamma t' \tag{2}$$

$$\boldsymbol{E}(x, y, z, t) = \alpha \boldsymbol{E}'(x', y', z', t') \tag{3a}$$

$$\boldsymbol{H}(x, y, z, t) = \beta \boldsymbol{H}'(x', y', z', t') \tag{3b}$$

where γ = the scale factor for time
α = the scale factor for electric intensity
β = the scale factor for magnetic intensity
$\boldsymbol{E}$ = the vector electric intensity
$\boldsymbol{H}$ = the vector magnetic intensity.

Unprimed quantities always refer to the full-scale system, and primed quantities to the model system. It may be noted that four scale factors (α, β, γ, p) are all that are needed, since there are only four fundamental units (mass, length, time, and charge) required to describe any electromagnetic quantity. While a more fundamental method of scaling would be to scale these four fundamental units, the scale factors introduced in (1)–(3) are more suitable for the present application.

When the scale factors p, α, β, and γ are definitely known quantities, (1), (2), and (3) represent the conditions which have to be satisfied in an "absolute" model. If only the quantities p, γ, and the ratio α/β are known, then the model is a "geometrical" model.

When the four scale factors have been chosen, then the relationships between all other electromagnetic quantities of the two systems are fixed. The way various quantities are related may be determined from Maxwell's equations, since the fields in both systems must satisfy them. The conditions for an absolute model will be considered in detail in the following.

The fields in the full-scale systems are described by the following equations (rationalized mks-coulomb units are used throughout):

$$\operatorname{curl} \boldsymbol{H}(x, y, z, t) = \sigma(x, y, z)\boldsymbol{E}(x, y, z, t) + \epsilon(x, y, z) \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \boldsymbol{E}(x, y, z, t) \tag{4}$$

$$\operatorname{curl} \boldsymbol{E}(x, y, z, t) = -\mu(x, y, z) \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \boldsymbol{H}(x, y, z, t) \tag{5}$$

where ϵ = the dielectric constant
μ = the permeability
σ = the conductivity.

The variables on which each quantity depends are written explicitly for clarity.

The field in the model may be described by using either the full-scale co-ordinate system or the model co-ordinate system. Using the model co-ordinate system, Maxwell's equations take the following form:

$$\operatorname{curl}' \boldsymbol{H}'(x', y', z', t') = \sigma'(x', y', z')\boldsymbol{E}'(x', y', z', t') + \epsilon'(x', y', z') \frac{\partial}{\partial t'} \boldsymbol{E}'(x', y', z', t') \tag{6}$$

$$\operatorname{curl}' \boldsymbol{E}'(x', y', z', t') = -\mu'(x', y', z') \frac{\partial}{\partial t'} \boldsymbol{H}'(x', y', z', t') \tag{7}$$

where the symbol curl′ means that the differentiations are to be performed in the primed co-ordinate system; so that, for example, the component of curl′ H' directed parallel to the x' axis is

$$\operatorname{curl}'_{x'} \boldsymbol{H}' = \frac{\partial H'_{z'}}{\partial y'} - \frac{\partial H'_{y'}}{\partial z'} \tag{8}$$

where H_z', is the component of the vector $\boldsymbol{H}'$ which is directed parallel to the z' axis, etc.

If the model system is an accurate simulation of the full-scale system, then inserting the transformations relating model quantities to full-scale quantities should transform (6) and (7) into (4) and (5). Hence, by inserting the transformations of (1), (2), and (3) into (6) and (7) and comparing the result with (4) and (5), it is pos-

sible to determine the transformations which relate the parameters ϵ, σ, and μ of the two systems.

The vector operator curl′ transforms according to (1). Hence, using the usual rules for the transformation of variables in a derivative,

$$\frac{\partial H'_{z'}}{\partial y'} = \frac{\partial H'_{z'}}{\partial y}\frac{dy}{dy'} = p\frac{\partial H'_{z'}}{\partial y}, \tag{9}$$

and similarly for the other components, it is evident that

$$\text{curl}'\, \boldsymbol{H}' = p\ \text{curl}\, \boldsymbol{H}' = \frac{p}{\beta}\text{curl}\, \boldsymbol{H} \tag{10}$$

when the transformation in (3b) is employed. Similarly, it can be shown that

$$\text{curl}'\, \boldsymbol{E}' = \frac{p}{\alpha}\text{curl}\, \boldsymbol{E}_0. \tag{11}$$

Also, from (2) it is apparent that

$$\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{E}'}{\partial t'} = \gamma\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{E}'}{\partial t} = \frac{\gamma}{\alpha}\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{E}}{\partial t}. \tag{12}$$

When these results are substituted in (6) and (7), it is found that they transform into

$$\frac{p}{\beta}\text{curl}\, \boldsymbol{H}(x, y, z, t) = \sigma'(x', y', z')\frac{\boldsymbol{E}}{\alpha}(x, y, z, t) + \frac{\gamma}{\alpha}\epsilon'(x', y', z')\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\boldsymbol{E}(x, y, z, t) \tag{13}$$

$$\frac{p}{\alpha}\text{curl}\, \boldsymbol{E}(x, y, z, t) = -\mu'(x', y', z')\frac{\gamma}{\beta}\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\boldsymbol{H}(x, y, z, t). \tag{14}$$

But these two equations must be identical with (4) and (5) for accurate simulation. Hence, it is apparent that

$$\frac{\beta}{p\alpha}\sigma'(x', y', z') = \sigma(x, y, z) \tag{15}$$

$$\frac{\beta\gamma}{p\alpha}\epsilon'(x', y', z') = \epsilon(x, y, z) \tag{16}$$

$$\frac{\alpha\gamma}{p\beta}\mu'(x', y', z') = \mu(x, y, z). \tag{17}$$

These equations are interpreted as follows: (15) requires the conductivity σ' at the point $P'(x', y', z')$ in the model to be equal to $p\alpha/\beta$ times the conductivity σ at the corresponding point $P(x, y, z)$ in the full-scale system. The other two equations are interpreted similarly. Therefore,

$$\sigma' = \frac{p\alpha}{\beta}\sigma \tag{18}$$

$$\epsilon' = \frac{p\alpha}{\beta\gamma}\epsilon \tag{19}$$

$$\mu' = \frac{p\beta}{\alpha\gamma}\mu. \tag{20}$$

These three equations represent the conditions which have to be satisfied by the media used for constructing the model in order that the simulation be accurate.

Conditions for an Absolute Model

The transformations which relate any quantity in one system to the corresponding quantity in the other system can now be obtained by considering the definition of the quantity in terms of the fundamental units, the characteristic parameters of the media (ϵ, σ, and μ), and the field vectors $\boldsymbol{E}$ and $\boldsymbol{H}$.

The Poynting vector for the full-scale system is defined to be the vector S and such that

$$\boldsymbol{S} = \boldsymbol{E} \times \boldsymbol{H}. \tag{21}$$

Similarly, the corresponding Poynting vector for the model system is

$$S' = \boldsymbol{E}' \times \boldsymbol{H}' = \frac{\boldsymbol{E}}{\alpha} \times \frac{\boldsymbol{H}}{\beta} = \frac{\boldsymbol{S}}{\alpha\beta}. \tag{22}$$

The total power P passing through a surface s in the full-scale system is

$$P = \int_s \boldsymbol{S}\cdot\boldsymbol{n}da \tag{23}$$

where $\boldsymbol{n}$ is a unit vector normal to the surface s and da is an element of area on the surface. Hence, in the model the corresponding power is

$$P' = \int_s \boldsymbol{S}'\cdot\boldsymbol{n}'da' = \int_s \frac{\boldsymbol{S}\cdot\boldsymbol{n}da}{\alpha\beta p} = \frac{P}{\alpha\beta p^2}. \tag{24}$$

The normal vectors $\boldsymbol{n}$ and $\boldsymbol{n}'$ have the same length since they are *unit* vectors (i.e., vectors of unit length). It should be noted that (24) is consistent with (22) since the vector S is measured in power per unit area and area transforms by the factor p'. The voltage V existing between two points P_1 and P_2 in the full-scale system is defined as

$$V = \int_{P_1}^{P_2} \boldsymbol{E}\cdot d\boldsymbol{l} \tag{25}$$

where $d\boldsymbol{l}$ is a vector element of length along the curve joining P_1 and P_2. The corresponding voltage V' in the model is

$$V' = \int_{P_1'}^{P_2'} \boldsymbol{E}'\cdot d\boldsymbol{l}' = \int_{P_1}^{P_2} \frac{\boldsymbol{E}}{\alpha}\cdot\frac{d\boldsymbol{l}}{p} = \frac{V}{\alpha p}. \tag{26}$$

The current-density vector J is

$$\boldsymbol{J} = \sigma\boldsymbol{E}. \tag{27}$$

For the model,

$$\boldsymbol{J}' = \sigma'\boldsymbol{E}' = \frac{p\alpha\sigma}{\beta}\frac{\boldsymbol{E}}{\alpha} = \frac{p}{\beta}\boldsymbol{J}. \tag{28}$$

From this, the transformation which relates corresponding total currents in the two systems is readily found to be

$$I' = \int_{s'} J' \cdot \mathbf{n}' da' = \int_s p \frac{\mathbf{J}}{\beta} \cdot \mathbf{n} \frac{da}{p^2} = \frac{I}{p\beta}. \quad (29)$$

For resistance,

$$R = \frac{l}{\sigma A} \quad (30)$$

$$R' = \frac{l'}{\sigma' A'} = \frac{l/p}{\frac{p\alpha\sigma}{\beta} \frac{A}{p^2}} = \frac{\beta}{\alpha} R. \quad (31)$$

It is readily shown that reactance and impedance transform in the same way as resistance.

A commonly used definition for radar echo area A is the following:

$$A = 4\pi r^2 \frac{W_r}{W_i} \quad (32)$$

where W_i = power per unit area in the incident plane wave

W_r = power per unit area in the reflected wave at a distance r from the reflecting object.

Hence, the corresponding echo area in the model system is

$$A' = 4\pi r'^2 \frac{W_r'}{W_i'} = 4\pi \left(\frac{r}{p}\right)^2 \frac{W_r}{\frac{\alpha\beta}{W_i}} = \frac{A}{p^2} \quad (33)$$

since W_r' and W_i' transform according to (22). Therefore, radar echoing area transforms in the same manner as a physical area.

The gain g of an antenna is defined by

$$g = 4\pi r^2 \frac{W}{P} \quad (34)$$

where W = power per unit area in the radiated wave at a distance r from the antenna

P = radiated power.

Hence, for the model,

$$g' = 4\pi r'^2 \frac{W'}{P'} = 4\pi \left(\frac{r}{p}\right)^2 \frac{\frac{W}{\alpha\beta}}{\frac{P}{\alpha\beta p^2}} = g \quad (35)$$

since W transforms according to (22) and P according to (24). The gain of a model antenna is therefore the same as the gain of the full-scale antenna.

TABLE I

CONDITIONS FOR AN ABSOLUTE MODEL

Name of Quantity	*Full-Scale System*	*Model System*
Length	l	$l' = \frac{l}{p}$
Time	t	$t' = \frac{t}{\gamma}$
Electric field intensity	$\mathbf{E}$	$\mathbf{E}' = \frac{\mathbf{E}}{\alpha}$
Magnetic field intensity	$\mathbf{H}$	$\mathbf{H}' = \frac{\mathbf{H}}{\beta}$
Conductivity	σ	$\sigma' = \frac{p\alpha\sigma}{\beta}$
Dielectric constant	ϵ	$\epsilon' = \frac{p\alpha}{\beta\gamma}\epsilon$
Permeability	μ	$\mu' = \frac{p\beta}{\alpha\gamma}\mu$
Voltage	V	$V' = \frac{V}{\alpha p}$
Current density	J	$J' = \frac{pJ}{\beta}$
Current	I	$I' = \frac{I}{\beta p}$
Power per unit area	W	$W' = \frac{W}{\alpha\beta}$
Total power	P	$P' = \frac{P}{\alpha\beta p^2}$
Charge density	ρ	$\rho' = \frac{p^2}{\beta\gamma}\rho$
Charge	Q	$Q' = \frac{1}{\beta\gamma p}Q$
Frequency	f	$f' = \gamma f$
Angular frequency	ω	$\omega' = \gamma\omega$
Wavelength	λ	$\lambda' = \frac{\lambda}{p}$
Phase velocity	v	$v' = \frac{\gamma v}{p}$
Propagation constant	k	$k' = pk$
Resistance	R	$R' = \frac{\beta}{\alpha}R$
Reactance	X	$X' = \frac{\beta}{\alpha}X$
Impedance	Z	$Z' = \frac{\beta}{\alpha}Z$
Dielectric displacement	$\mathbf{D}$	$\mathbf{D}' = \frac{p}{\beta\gamma}\mathbf{D}$
Capacitance	C	$C' = \frac{\alpha}{\gamma\beta}C$
Inductance	L	$L' = \frac{\beta}{\alpha\gamma}L$
Flux density	B	$B' = \frac{p}{\alpha\gamma}B$
Radar echoing area	A	$A' = \frac{A}{p^2}$
Gain of an antenna	g	$g' = g$

Table I is a list of the relationships between model and full-scale quantities which are required for an absolute model. The proofs of these relationships are made by transforming the quantities which are involved in the definitions, as was done above.

Practical Considerations in Choice of Scale Factors

For any arbitrary choices of the four scale factors p, α, β, and γ it is theoretically possible to construct an exact model to simulate a given full-scale system. However, in practice there are certain restrictions on the choice of scale factors which result from the limited ranges of variation of ϵ, σ, and μ available in actual media which can be used for models. For example, when ferromagnetic media are excluded from the model, it is evident that the permeability of the model media cannot differ appreciably from the value of the permeability for free space. Therefore, for all media

$$\mu'(x', y', z') = \mu(x, y, z) = 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ henry per meter}, \quad (36)$$

and it follows from (20) that

$$\frac{p\beta}{\gamma\alpha} = 1. \quad (37)$$

Furthermore, when waves in free space are involved in the full-scale system it is apparent that the medium in which they travel (air) must be correctly simulated in the model. It is general practice at the present time to simulate the air in the full-scale system with air in the model system. This is partly because of convenience and partly because the use of any other medium usually means higher attenuation of the waves than can be tolerated. Thus, it is sometimes suggested that the model measurements be made under water in order to use lower frequencies with a given size of model. However, the attenuation of electromagnetic waves in water is so high as to cause considerable distortion of the fields. Therefore, air is generally used, and it follows that, for these regions of the model,

$$\epsilon'(x', y', z') = \epsilon(x, y, z). \quad (38)$$

But, since (19) has to be satisfied everywhere in the model system, (38) must therefore be true for all media. Hence,

$$\frac{p\alpha}{\gamma\beta} = 1. \quad (39)$$

A comparison of the requirements imposed by (37) and (39) shows that these equations can only be satisfied simultaneously by choosing

$$\frac{\alpha}{\beta} = 1. \quad (40)$$

Hence,

$$\alpha = \beta \quad (41)$$

and

$$p = \gamma. \quad (42)$$

These conditions therefore require that the relationshi between conductivities in (18) take the form

$$\sigma'(x', y', z') = p\sigma(x, y, z). \quad (43)$$

Thus it is apparent that for a practical model which i subject to the above restrictions there are actually onl two scale factors (p and either α or β) which can be ar bitrarily chosen. The other scale factors are then fixe by (41) and (42).

It should be noted that the condition for conductivi ties required by (43) is not necessarily satisfied by usin air for the model to simulate air in the full-scale system Actually, the air has a small conductivity which varie with frequency, and which therefore should be take into account in designing the model and simulated ac cording to (43). However, for most frequencies the ai can be considered to be a perfect insulator and the erro made in neglecting its conductivity is generally ver small.

The restriction that $\alpha=\beta$, imposed by (41), can be il lustrated by noting from (3a) and (3b) that the ratio α/β is the ratio of the impedance of space in the full-scal system to the impedance of the medium which simu lates free space in the model. Since the same medium i to be used in both systems, the impedance of this me dium must be the same in both systems. Furthermore it should be noted that (40) fixes only the ratio of α t β, and does not restrict the choice of one of them. If a specific value is assigned to either α or β, the model be comes an absolute model and it can be used to obtain quantitative results for all quantities. Otherwise, the model is a geometrical model.

Geometrical Models

If a definite value is assigned only to the mechanical scale factor p, so that the values of α and β are unknown (but their ratio being equal to unity), the model becomes a geometrical model. A value may be assigned to p which results in a model of convenient size for measurements. The important requirements to be satisfied in constructing a geometrical model are, therefore, the following:

$$x' = x/p \quad (44)$$

$$y' = y/p \quad (45)$$

$$z' = z/p \quad (46)$$

$$t' = t/p \quad (47)$$

$$\epsilon' = \epsilon \quad (48)$$

$$\sigma' = p\sigma \quad (49)$$

$$\mu' = \mu. \quad (50)$$

The parameter p which determines the scale of the model is arbitrarily chosen to yield a model of convenient size. The relationships between various full-scale

and model quantities which can be obtained directly from model measurements are listed in Table II. In addition to these properties of the system, it is possible to determine such characteristics as polarization, bandwidth, relative antenna patterns, relative radar echo patterns, and the like, which do not depend on a knowledge of power level.

In spite of the fact that the power level being used in a geometrical model may be unknown, it is still possible to obtain quantitative results from such a model in a number of ways. The most common method consists of using a standard model whose performance is known, and comparing the model under test with this standard. The performance of the standard model may be obtained from calculations, from full-scale measurements, or by any other means. The comparison between the test model and the standard model must be made at the same power level (although the actual level need not be known) or at power levels whose ratio is known.

TABLE II
CONDITIONS FOR A PRACTICAL GEOMETRICAL MODEL

Name of Quantity	*Full-Scale System*	*Model System*
Length	l	$l'=l/p$
Time	t	$t'=t/p$
Conductivity	σ	$\sigma'=p\sigma$
Inductive capacity	ϵ	$\epsilon'=\epsilon$
Permeability	μ	$\mu'=\mu$
Frequency	f	$f'=pf$
Wavelength	λ	$\lambda'=\lambda/p$
Phase velocity	v	$v'=v$
Propagation constant	k	$k'=pk$
Resistance	R	$R'=R$
Reactance	X	$X'=X$
Impedance	Z	$Z'=Z$
Capacitance	C	$C'=c/p$
Inductance	L	$L'=L/p$
Echoing area	A	$A'=A/p^2$
Antenna gain	g	$g'=g$

p=ratio of any full-scale length to the corresponding model length.

For antenna model measurements, the standard model is usually a half-wave dipole antenna whose characteristics are known from calculations. By comparing the field produced by the test model antenna with the field produced by a half-wave dipole when fed with an equal amount of power, the performance of the full-scale test antenna can be determined.

Another method for converting relative measurements of field intensities of antennas to absolute values makes use of the properties of the Poynting vector. From relative measurements of field intensity, the value of the Poynting vector at each point in space can be determined, except for a constant multiplier which depends only on the power levels. But, if the Poynting vector is integrated over the surface of a sphere of large radius, the result must equal the power radiated by the antenna. Hence, the actual value of the unknown multiplying factor which must be used to convert the relative Poynting vector to absolute values may be obtained by choosing it to make the integral equal to the known value of full-scale radiated power.

SIMULATION OF RADAR ECHOES

To construct a model which yields absolute values for radar echoes and radar echoing areas, it is necessary to simulate quantities according to the rules listed in Table I. This means that it is necessary in the model system to make measurements of the actual values of transmitted and received power when the reflecting object is in the field of the model system.

Suppose that definitely known values are assigned to α and β, giving an absolute model system which simulates a given radar equipment. (Specific values can be assigned to α and β by knowing the ratio of any power level in the model to the corresponding power level in the full-scale system.) Then, if measurements of field intensity $\boldsymbol{E}'$ and power W' in the model are made under a given set of circumstances, the corresponding field intensity and power in the full-scale system are given by the relations

$$\boldsymbol{E} = \alpha\boldsymbol{E}' \tag{51}$$

$$W = \alpha\beta W'. \tag{52}$$

In this way, the actual values which exist in the full-scale radar equipment can be determined directly from measurements on the model. Therefore, by making suitable measurements of the transmitted and received power in the model for a specified model reflecting object, the full-scale values, required for insertion into (32) defining the echoing area of the object, can be determined.

In practice, it is inconvenient to measure power in model systems operating at very high frequency and at low power levels. Hence, geometrical models are commonly used in preference to the absolute models described in the previous paragraph. In a geometrical model, the power level at which the equipment operates is unknown, so that the measurements yield only relative values of echoes and echoing areas. Using a properly constructed model, it is possible to obtain relative patterns of echoes showing how the echo varies with the orientation of the reflecting object and with the polarization of the incident wave. To convert these relative measurements to absolute values it is necessary to adopt special means, as is done for antenna patterns.

The most convenient method for converting relative measurements of radar echoes to absolute values is to use a standard of known echoing area. The power radiated in the model system is held constant (at a level which need not be known), and the echo from the test object is compared with the echo from a standard object when placed in the position previously occupied by the test object. From the ratio of these measured values and the known echoing area of the standard, the absolute echoing area of the test object can be determined.

There are two points of view which may be adopted in interpreting the measurements made on the model system. One point of view is to consider a full-scale system in which there are two reflecting objects, one being the

test object having an echoing area A_1 which is to be determined from the measurements, and the other being the standard object whose known echoing area is A_2. Suppose, now, that measurements are made in the full-scale system to determine the ratio of the power W_1 reflected by the test object to the power W_2 reflected by the standard object when subjected to the same illumination. It follows from the definition of echoing area, (32), that this ratio is

$$a = W_1/W_2 = A_1/A_2. \tag{53}$$

Since A_2 is known, measurement of the ratio a yields the echoing area A_1 of the test object. But this ratio a can just as well be determined from measurements on a geometrical model of the system. To determine it from a model, it is only necessary to model the system so that it satisfies the requirements of (44) to (50). It is important to note that, in making the geometrical model for measuring the ratio a, it is necessary to *model both the test object and the standard object.* Having correctly constructed the model, it is a simple matter to determine the ratio a by merely comparing the amounts of power reflected by the model test object and the model standard object. This ratio a can then be inserted in (53) to determine the echoing area A_1 of the full-scale test object.

It should be noted that this procedure requires no knowledge of the actual echoing area of the model standard object at the model frequency and, in fact, the numerical value of the model scale factor p does not even appear anywhere in the calculations.

Another point of view is to carry out the calculations in terms of the model frequency, and then convert the results to full-scale value by using (33), which relates the echoing area in the two systems. The ratio a is again measured on a model system. Then, at the *model frequency*, the ratio of the echoing area of the model test object to the echoing area of the model standard object is

$$a = A_1'/A_2'. \tag{54}$$

The echoing area A_2' for the model standard object at the model frequency is presumably known, so that A_1' can be calculated. Hence, using (35), the echoing area for the full-scale test object at the full-scale frequency is readily found to be

$$A_1 = p^2A_1' = ap^2A_2' \tag{55}$$

where A_2' = echoing area of the model of the standard object for waves at the model frequency. In this method of calculation, the model scale factor p appears explicitly in the calculations. However, the result actually depends only on the measured ratio a and the known value of A_2, because, for the standard object,

$$A_2 = p^2A_2'. \tag{56}$$

Inserting (55) and (56) in (54) yields (53), which was used in the other method of calculation, and in which the parameter p does not appear. Hence, the two points of view are equivalent.

High-Frequency Polyphase Transmission Line*

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Summary—**The problems of the polyphase transmission line and the single-phase multiwire line have been formulated, based upon the vector-potential method. The transmission-line equations that determine the current and voltage relationships on these lines have been derived and solved. Formulas for the characteristic impedance of the lines have been thus obtained. They are useful in designing lines to feed polyphase radiating systems, and in computing the input impedance of triple-folded dipoles and other antennas.**

Introduction

IN STUDYING the problems of three coupled antennas arranged as a triangular array, it has been found convenient to decompose the excitations into three simple modes. Each mode can then be analyzed by the method of vector potential, as for the case of an isolated antenna.[1,2] The situation is illustrated schematically in Fig. 1, where the three antennas are assumed to be of identical size, both in diameter and in length.

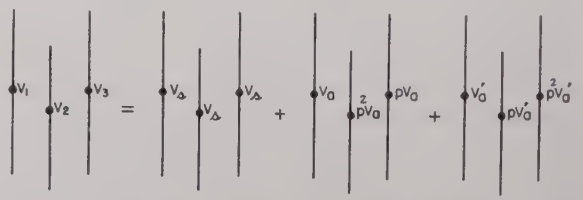

Fig. 1—Three different types of excitation occurring in the problem of three coupled antennas.

But, electrically, they may be driven by three different generators of voltages, say, V_1, V_2, and V_3, respectively.

* Decimal classification: R117.1×R320.41. Original manuscript received by the Institute, February 20, 1948; revised manuscript received, June 4, 1948. The research reported in this paper was made possible through support extended Cruft Laboratory, Harvard University, jointly by the Navy Department (Office of Naval Research) and the Signal Corps, U. S. Army, under Contract N5ori-76, T.O.I.

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[1] E. Hallen, "Theoretical investigations into the transmitting and receiving qualities of antennas," *Nov. Acta, Roy. Soc. Sci.* (Upsala) vol. 77, p. 1; 1938.

[2] R. King, and D. Middleton, "The cylindrical antenna, current and impedance," *Quar. Appl. Math.* vol. 3, no. 4, p. 302; 1946.

By the method of symmetrical components, the three voltages can be decomposed to form three groups designated by zero sequence, positive sequence, and negative sequence. Mathematically, they are connected in the following linear equations:

$$V_1 = V_s + V_a + V_a' \tag{1}$$

$$V_2 = V_s + pV_a + p^2V_a' \tag{2}$$

$$V_3 = V_s + p^2V_a + pV_a' \tag{3}$$

where p denotes the phase factor $e^{j2\pi/3}$. Conversely, one may solve V_s, V_a, and V_a' in terms of V_1, V_2, and V_3 from (1)–(3). By the superposition theorem, the three coupled antennas driven by three arbitrary voltages can thus be considered as driven by three sequences, and the general problem concerning the current distribution, input impedances, and the like will be solved, once the solution of each sequence is known. If the antennas are closely coupled to each other, the positive sequence or the negative sequence forms a conventional excitation of the three-phase open-end transmission line, while the zero sequence forms an excitation which is mainly responsible for the radiation from the system. In the present paper, discussion will be limited to transmission-line modes, and the formulation will be extended to any number of phases exceeding three. The analysis of the radiation modes was treated in another paper[3] as an antenna problem. Single-phase multiwire transmission lines, which are of equal interest, are also treated here.

General Equations and Their Solutions for a Three-Phase Line

The problem to be treated is illustrated in Fig. 2. Three generators with a successive phase difference of 120 degrees are connected at one terminal of the composite line with a y-connected impedance net Z_{oy}'s terminated at the transmitting end. At the rear end, the line is terminated in three y-connected load impedances Z_{sy}'s. It is essential in the present analysis that the composite line be balanced both geometrically and electrically, so that the following equations hold true:

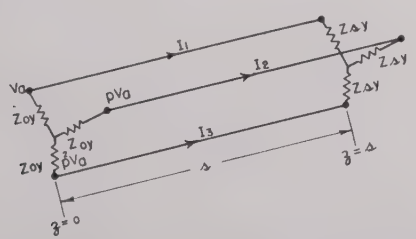

Fig. 2—A three-phase transmission line terminated by y-connected impedances.

$$I_{3z} = pI_{2z} = p^2I_{1z}. \tag{4}$$

[3] C. T. Tai, "Coupled antennas," Proc. I.R.E., vol. 36, pp. 487–501; April, 1948.

The analysis of this problem is well established for short lines in power engineering. At high frequencies, or when the length of the line is comparable to the wavelength, the analysis has not been so thoroughly studied as that of a two-wire line. It is almost universally true that earlier works[4,5] were developed by introducing such coefficients as mutual inductance or mutual capacitance between the wires. Some of these concepts are based upon the theory of static electricity. As an analysis of an electrodynamic problem, they are sometimes quite misleading. To clarify many of these ambiguities, the theory of the polyphase transmission line will be developed on a more substantial base by making use of the so-called vector-potential method.[6]

By starting with Maxwell's equations in a homogeneous, isotropic medium, with harmonic time dependence, namely,

$$\left.\begin{aligned} \operatorname{curl} \overline{E} &= -j\omega\overline{B} \\ \frac{1}{\mu}\operatorname{curl} \overline{B} &= \overline{J} + j\omega\epsilon\overline{E} \\ \operatorname{div} \epsilon\overline{E} &= \rho \\ \operatorname{div} \overline{B} &= 0 \end{aligned}\right\}, \tag{5}$$

two potential functions $\overline{A}$ and ϕ can be defined in terms of $\overline{E}$ and $\overline{B}$ according to the following two equations:

$$\operatorname{curl} \overline{A} = \overline{B} \tag{6}$$

$$\operatorname{grad} \phi = -\overline{E} - j\omega\overline{A}. \tag{7}$$

An additional relation is then assumed between $\overline{A}$ and ϕ such that both functions will satisfy the three-dimensional wave equations, one of which is a vector wave equation, while the other is a scalar one. They are

$$\operatorname{div} \overline{A} = -j\left(\frac{\beta^2}{\omega}\right)\phi \tag{8}$$

$$\nabla^2\overline{A} + \beta^2\overline{A} = -\mu\overline{J} \tag{9}$$

$$\nabla^2\phi + \beta^2\phi = -\frac{1}{\epsilon}\rho \tag{10}$$

where

$$\beta^2 = \frac{\omega^2}{v^2}; \qquad v^2 = \frac{1}{\mu\epsilon}.$$

The particular integrals of (9) and (10) that represent the solution of the potentials for a certain distribution of charges and currents in a finite region are known as Helmholtz's integrals, which are given by

$$\overline{A} = \frac{\mu}{4\pi}\int_\tau \frac{\overline{J}'e^{-j\beta r}}{r}d\tau' + \frac{\mu}{4\pi}\int_\sigma \frac{t'}{r}e^{-j\beta r}d\sigma' \tag{11}$$

[4] A. Russell "A. C. Circuits," vol. 2, Cambridge University Press, 1946; p. 547.

[5] L. A. Woodruff, "Principles of Electrical Power Transmission," John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York, N. Y., 1938.

[6] R. King, "Electromagnetic Engineering," vol. 1, chap. 3, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, N. Y., 1945.

$$\phi = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon}\int_{\tau} \frac{\rho' e^{-j\beta r}}{r} d\tau' + \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon}\int_{\sigma} \frac{\eta'}{r} e^{-j\beta r} d\sigma' \qquad (12)$$

where η' and $\bar{l}'$ are surface density of charges and currents that may exist at the surfaces of the bodies immersed in the medium, apart from the continuous distribution of volume charges and volume current, ρ' and $\bar{J}'$, while σ and τ denote respectively the surface and volume where the integration is performed.

In dealing with three cylindrical wires as shown in Fig. 2, (7), (8), and (11) can be reduced to

$$\frac{\partial \phi_1}{\partial z} = - E_{1z} - j\omega A_{1z} \qquad (13)$$

$$\frac{\partial A_{1z}}{\partial z} = - j\frac{\beta^2}{\omega}\phi_1 \qquad (14)$$

$$A_{1z} = \frac{\mu}{4\pi}\int_0^s \left(I_{1z'} \frac{e^{-j\beta r_{11}}}{r_{11}} + I_{2z'} \frac{e^{-j\beta r_{12}}}{r_{12}} + I_{3z'} \frac{e^{-j\beta r_{13}}}{r_{13}} \right) dz' \qquad (15)$$

where

$$\begin{cases} r_{11} = \sqrt{(z_1' - z_1)^2 + a^2} \\ r_{12} = \sqrt{(z_2' - z_1)^2 + b^2} \\ r_{13} = \sqrt{(z_3' - z_1)^2 + b^2} \end{cases},$$

a and b denoting respectively the radius of each wire and the distance between the centers of any two adjacent wires; z denoting the position of a fixed point where A_{1z} is defined; and z_1', z_2', and z_3' being the positions of the variable points where the integrations are performed. Two similar sets of equations like (13)–(15) can be derived for A_{2z}, ϕ_2, E_{2z}; A_{3z}, ϕ_3, and E_{3z}. It is understood that only the values of ϕ and $\bar{A}$ defined at the surface of the conductor are of interest in the present analysis. In reducing the equations from three-dimensional form to the one-dimensional form, the contribution due to the end leads has been neglected. Derivations of these equations similar to (13)–(15) are described in great detail in footnote reference 6. Equation (15) can be simplified by substituting the values of I_{2z} and I_{3z} in terms of I_{1z} according to (4), and by making use of the relation

$$1 + p + p^2 = 0. \qquad (16)$$

One then has

$$A_{1z} = \frac{\mu}{4\pi}\int_0^s I_{1z'}\left(\frac{e^{-j\beta r_{11}}}{r_{11}} - \frac{e^{-j\beta r_{12}}}{r_{12}}\right) dz'. \qquad (17)$$

By defining

$$V_{12} = \phi_1 - \phi_2, \qquad V_{23} = \phi_2 - \phi_3, \qquad V_{31} = \phi_3 - \phi_1 \qquad (18)$$

$$W_{12} = A_1 - A_2, \qquad W_{23} = A_2 - A_3, \qquad W_{31} = A_3 - A_1 \qquad (19)$$

and substituting

$$E = z_1^i I$$

where z_1^i is the internal impedance per unit length for a single wire and I the total axial current in each conductor, the following equations can be derived from (13)–(15) and similar equations for A_2, ϕ_2, E_2; A_3, ϕ_3 E_3. (For simplicity, the subscript z is omitted.) They are

$$\frac{\partial V_{12}}{\partial z} = - z_1^i(1 - p)I_1 - j\omega W_{12} \qquad (20)$$

$$\frac{\partial W_{12}}{\partial z} = - j\frac{\beta^2}{\omega} V_{12}, \qquad (21)$$

and two similar pairs for V_{23}, W_{23}, V_{31}, and W_{31}. By means of (4) and (17), W_{12} can be written as

$$W_{12} = A_1 - A_2 = \frac{\mu}{4\pi}\int_0^s I_1'(1-p)\left(\frac{e^{-j\beta r_{11}}}{r_{11}} - \frac{e^{-j\beta r_{12}}}{r_{12}}\right) dz'. \qquad (22)$$

Equation (22) can be simplified by introducing a distribution function defined by

$$I_1(z') = I_1(z) f(zz'). \qquad (23)$$

Then one has

$$W_{12} = \frac{\mu}{4\pi}(1 - p)I_1 \int_0^s f(zz')\left(\frac{e^{-j\beta r_{11}}}{r_{11}} - \frac{e^{-j\beta r_{12}}}{r_{12}}\right) dz'. \qquad (24)$$

If the spacing between two adjacent wires is small compared with a wavelength, it has been demonstrated[7] that the function defined by the definite integral in (24) is practically constant, being independent of z except near the two ends of the line. This constant can be evaluated from the following definite integral:

$$K = \int_0^s \left(\frac{1}{r_{11}} - \frac{1}{r_{12}}\right) dz' \doteq 2 \ln \frac{b}{a}; \qquad z^2 \gg b^2, \qquad (s - z)^2 \gg b^2. \qquad (25)$$

Now let another constant z^e be defined:

$$z^e = j\omega\frac{\mu}{2} K = j\omega \frac{\mu}{\pi} \ln \frac{b}{a};$$

then W_{12} can be written as

$$W_{12} = \frac{-j}{\omega}\frac{(1 - p)}{2} z^e I_1. \qquad (26)$$

Substituting (26) in (20)–(21), one obtains the following two differential equations:

$$\frac{\partial V_{12}}{\partial z} = - \frac{(1 - p)}{2}(r + j\omega l)I_1 \qquad (27)$$

$$\frac{\partial I_1}{\partial z} = - \frac{2}{(1 - p)}(g + j\omega c)V_{12} \qquad (28)$$

[7] See pp. 478–485 of footnote reference 6.

where

$$r + j\omega l = 2z_1^i + z^e \tag{29}$$

$$g + j\omega c = y^e = \frac{-\beta^2}{z^e} = \frac{-\mu\omega^2\left(\epsilon - j\frac{\sigma}{\omega}\right)}{z^e}. \tag{30}$$

In (30), ϵ and σ are the effective dielectric constant and conductivity of the surrounding medium. Formulas for r, l, g, and c can be derived easily from (29) and (30). They are

$$r = 2r^i = \frac{1}{\pi a}\sqrt{\frac{\omega\mu_c}{2\sigma_c}} \tag{31}$$

$$l \doteq l^e = \frac{\mu}{\pi}\ln\frac{b}{a} \tag{32}$$

$$g = \frac{\pi\sigma}{\ln\frac{b}{a}} \tag{33}$$

$$c = \frac{\pi\epsilon}{\ln\frac{b}{a}}. \tag{34}$$

It is understood that these formulas are derived under the assumption that $(2a/b)^2 \ll 1$. Expressions defined by (31)–(34) are precisely the line constants of an isolated two-wire transmission line with separation equal to b and the radius of the conductors equal to a. It is seen that by means of the vector-potential method one can derive formally the transmission-line equations of a three-phase line without relying upon the so-called distributed constants of such a composite line.

By introducing hyperbolic functions,[8] and inserting the proper boundary conditions, the solution for I_1 and V_{12} is found to be

$$I_1 = \frac{V_a}{Z_{cy}}\frac{\sinh\theta_0\sinh\left[k(s-z)+\theta_s\right]}{\sinh\left(ks+\theta_0+\theta_s\right)} \tag{35}$$

$$V_{12} = (1-p)V_a\frac{\sinh\theta_0\cosh\left[k(s-z)+\theta_s\right]}{\sinh\left(ks+\theta_0+\theta_s\right)} \tag{36}$$

where the constants are defined in the following equations:

$$k = \sqrt{(r+j\omega l)(g+j\omega c)} \tag{37}$$

$$Z_c = \sqrt{\frac{r+j\omega l}{g+j\omega c}} \tag{38}$$

$$Z_{cy} = \tfrac{1}{2}Z_c \tag{39}$$

$$\coth\theta_0 = Z_{oy}/Z_{cy} \tag{40}$$

$$\coth\theta_s = Z_{sy}/Z_{cy}. \tag{41}$$

[8] R. King, "Transmission line theory and its application," *Jour. Appl. Phys.*, vol. 14, pp. 577–600; November, 1943.

For a y load, it can be readily verified that

$$(I_1)_s = \frac{(V_{12})_s}{(1-p)Z_{sy}}. \tag{42}$$

Thus for any given pair of values of I_1 and V_{12} an equivalent y input impedance can be defined by

$$Z_{iny} = \frac{V_{12}}{(1-p)I_1}. \tag{43}$$

For a section of line of length s terminated by a y load of impedances equal to Z_{sy}, the input impedance is

$$Z_{iny} = Z_{cy}\coth\left(ks+\theta_s\right). \tag{44}$$

From (41) it is seen that, if $Z_{sy} = Z_{cy}$, θ_s becomes infinite; therefore, from (44), $Z_{iny} = Z_{cy}$, or if one lets s become infinitely large in (44), Z_{iny} will also be equal to Z_{cy}. This proves that Z_{cy} is actually the characteristic impedance of the line. There is no difficulty in defining an equivalent-Δ characteristic impedance of the line if the load is Δ-connected as shown in Fig. 3. For a three-phase line, the relation between $Z_{c\Delta}$ and Z_{cy} is simply

$$Z_{c\Delta} = 3Z_{cy} = \tfrac{3}{2}Z_c \tag{45}$$

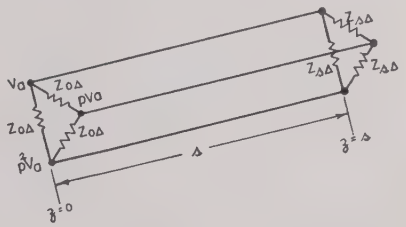

Fig. 3—A three-phase transmission line terminated by Δ-connected impedances.

where Z_c is the characteristic impedance of an isolated two-wire line.

Extension to an n-Phase Line

The method described can be easily extended to an n-phase line with a configuration shown in Fig. 4. Although the formulation was quite complicated at the beginning,

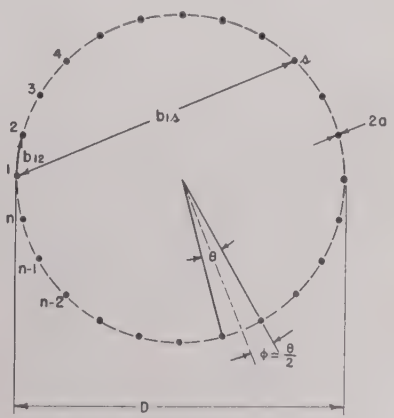

Fig. 4—An n-wire line illustrating the notation used in the text.

the results turned out to be very simple. For a low-loss line placed in air, the equivalent-y characteristic impedance of an n-phase line is found to be

$$R_{cny} = 60 \ln \frac{D}{a} - 120 \ln \left[(\sin \phi)^{\cos 2\phi} \cdot (\sin 2\phi)^{\cos 4\phi} \cdots (\sin (k-1)\phi)^{\cos 2(k-1)\phi}\right]$$

$$= 60 \ln \frac{b_{12}}{a \sin \phi} - 120 \ln \left[(\sin \phi)^{\cos 2\phi} \cdot (\sin 2\phi)^{\cos 4\phi} \cdots (\sin (k-1)\phi)^{\cos 2(k-1)\phi}\right] \quad (46)$$

where

$$k = \begin{cases} \dfrac{n+1}{2}, & n = \text{odd} \\ \dfrac{n}{2}, & n = \text{even}. \end{cases}$$

The meaning of D, b_{12}, and ϕ is explained in Fig. 4. The equivalent-Δ characteristic impedance is given by

$$R_{nc\Delta} = 4 \sin^2 \phi R_{ncy}. \quad (47)$$

To the knowledge of the writer, this formula has never appeared before. Previous workers[9] dealing with this subject often had their formulas presented numerically, because most of the line constants, including mutual and self-coefficients, have been presented in this way. The analytic formula derived here is believed to have applications for long-distance power transmission, as well as for high-frequency power transmission.

Since the characteristic impedance of a polyphase transmission line is defined with respect to all the terminals of the composite line, it is not directly related to that of a two-wire line. In order to determine whether a line is relatively of low impedance or of high impedance, one may resort to the power relation. Suppose that a polyphase line has been terminated with its characteristic impedance; then the total power input is

$$P = \frac{nV^2}{R_{cn\Delta}} \quad (48)$$

where V is the line voltage between two phases. If the same amount of power is to be transmitted by a nonresonant two-wire line maintained at the same voltage, the line must be designed to have a characteristic impedance R_c equal to $R_{cn\Delta}/n$. It is thus seen that the quantity $R_{cn\Delta}/n$ is a measure of the effective characteristic impedance of a composite line. Numerical values of $R_{cn\Delta}$, R_{cny}, and $R_{cn\Delta}/n$ will be given later.

Single-Phase Multiwire Transmission Line

If the n wires shown in Fig. 4 are excited so that any two adjacent wires will carry equal and opposite currents, the system forms a single-phase multiwire transmission line. It is necessary that n be an even number. The analysis of this problem follows the same method outlined previously. The characteristic impedance of the line is found to be

$$R_{cn} = \frac{240}{n} \ln \left(\frac{2D}{na}\right) - \frac{240}{n} \ln \left(\frac{2b_{12}}{na \sin \phi}\right). \quad (49)$$

The simplicity of this expression is attributed to a not-very-well-known trigonometrical identity, namely,

$$\frac{\sin 2\phi}{\sin \phi} \cdot \frac{\sin 4\phi}{\sin 3\phi} \cdots \left(\sin \left(\frac{n-2}{2}\right)\phi\right)^{(-1)(n+2)/2} = \sqrt{\frac{n}{2}},$$

$$\phi = \frac{\pi}{n}. \quad (50)$$

For $n=2$, (49) reduces to the well-known formula of the characteristic impedance of a two-wire line. For $n=4$, the formula checks with the result obtained by King.[10] It is seen that a single-phase multiwire line can be regarded as a link between a two-wire line and a coaxial line as the number of wires is increased.

Numerical Computations

To study the variation of the characteristic impedances of a polyphase or a single-phase multiwire transmission line, as the number of wires is changed, one can either keep constant b_{12}, the separation between two

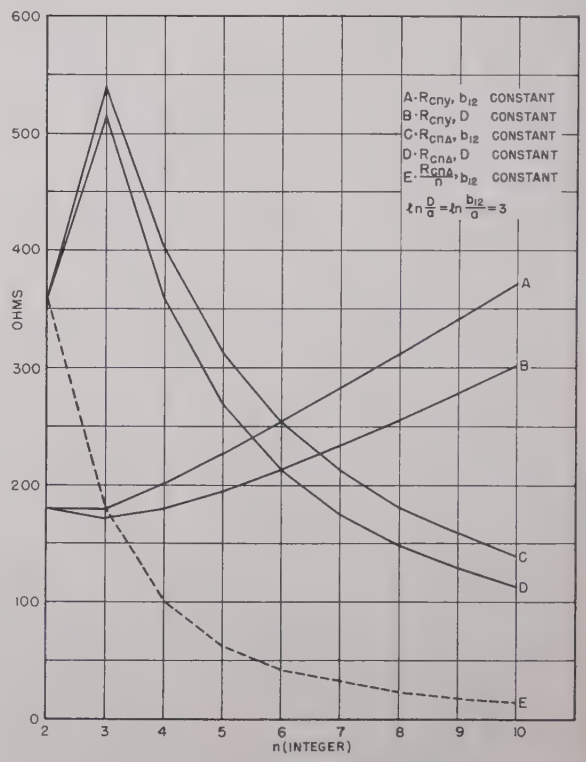

Fig. 5—Characteristic impedance of a polyphase transmission line as a function of n.

[9] H. B. Dwight, "Transmission Line Formulas," D Van Nostrand Co., Inc., New York, N. Y., 1925.

[10] See chapter 4 of footnote reference 6.

adjacent wires, or constant D, the diameter of the composite line. For a polyphase line, this is illustrated graphically in Fig. 5, where curve A represents the values of R_{cny} at constant D, and curve B the values at constant b_{12}. The equivalent-y characteristic impedance of a two-wire line is taken as one-half of its actual value. In both cases, $\ln(D/a)$ and $\ln(b_{12}/a)$ are assumed to be equal to 3. Curves C and D are the equivalent characteristic impedance defined in terms of a Δ connection. The curve marked E shows the values of $R_{cn\Delta}/n$, which is a measure of the effective characteristic impedance of a polyphase line. It is seen that the polyphase line is essentially a low-impedance line as compared to a two-wire line.

The value of R_{cn} for a single-phase multiwire line is plotted on Fig. 6. For other values of D/a or b_{12}/a, complete information may be obtained from this figure by an appropriate shifting of the curves. To use (46) and (49) one must not overlook the fact that these formulas are derived under the assumption that b_{12}^2 is large compared with a^2.

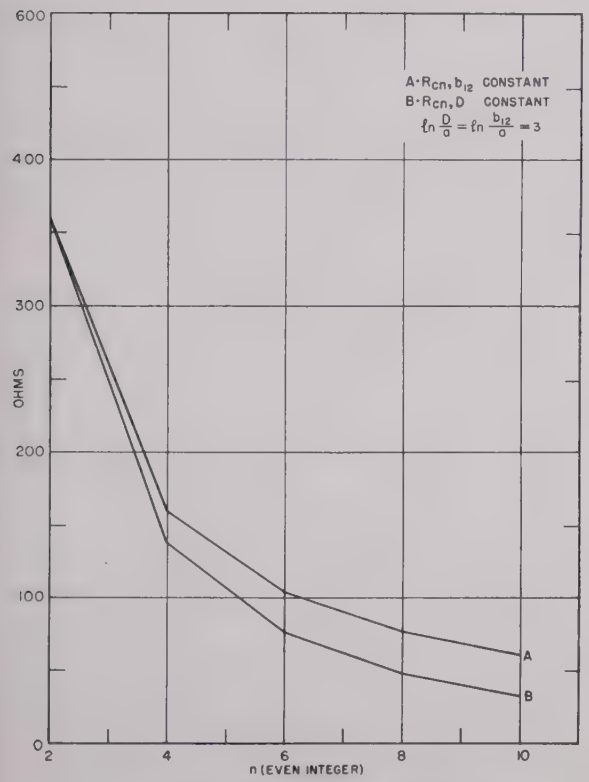

Fig. 6—Characteristic impedance of a single-phase multiwire transmission line as a function of n.

As a check on the validity of these formulas, we like to compare the primary constants derived using the conventional method, as quoted in the literature.[11] For a three-phase balanced line, the inductance per meter per phase is given by

$$L' = 2 \ln \frac{b_{12}}{r} \times 10^{-7} \quad \text{henry/meter} \tag{51}$$

while the "capacitance to neutral" as computed by the so-called indirect method is

$$C' = \frac{1}{18 \ln \dfrac{b_{12}}{r}} \times 10^{-9} \quad \text{farad/meter.} \tag{52}$$

The equivalent y-characteristic impedance is therefore given by

$$R_{cy} = \sqrt{\frac{L'}{C'}} = 60 \ln \frac{b_{12}}{r}, \tag{53}$$

which is the same as (46) by putting $k=2$ or $n=3$. As explained by the same two authors,[11] the term "capacitance to neutral" is quite misleading. The situation is even worse when we are going to derive the transmission-line equation for a polyphase line by means of the conventional method, where the coefficients of mutual capacitance and mutual inductance are bound to be introduced.

Conclusion

The preceding analysis shows an interesting application of the vector-potential method in dealing with polyphase transmission-line problems. Equations that determine the current and voltage distribution on the lines have thus been derived and solved without making use of the distribution constants of the lines that would be very involved otherwise. The theory used in this study of the polyphase transmission line is useful in computing the input impedance of a number of radiating systems, including, especially, the triple-folded dipole and the corner-reflector antenna.[12] The formula for the characteristic impedance of these lines is useful in designing lines to feed polyphase radiating systems.[13,14]

Acknowledgment

The writer wishes to acknowledge his indebtedness to Ronold King for guiding his work in the course of this investigation.

[11] F. W. Norris and L. A. Bingham, "Electrical Characteristics of Power and Telephone Transmission Lines," International Textbook Co., Scranton, Pa., 1936.

[12] C. T. Tai, "The theory of coupled antennas and its applications," Technical Report 12, Cruft Laboratory, Harvard University Cambridge, Mass., 1947.

[13] G. H. Brown, "The turnstile antenna," *Electronics*, vol. 9, pp. 14–17, 48; April, 1936.

[14] F. E. Terman, "Radio Engineers' Handbook," pp. 816–818, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, N. Y., 1943.

Low-Pass Filters Using Coaxial Transmission Lines as Elements*

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Summary—**Transmission-line low-pass filter design is in large measure dependent upon the frequency band in which the filter is to be used. Certain approximations may be made at comparatively low frequencies which simplify the problem, refinements in the analysis having to be introduced as the filter pass band is extended to higher and higher frequencies. Four transmission-line low-pass filter designs are presented which specify the mechanical dimensions required for constructing low-pass transmission-line filters having pass bands with a width of as much as 4000 Mc.**

I. Introduction

THE USE OF TRANSMISSION LINES as filter elements is not new, considerable research on the subject having been done before the war, with the beginning perhaps going back to a paper by Mason and Sykes.[1] Other work concerning such filters for rather special applications has also appeared.[2–5] A group of investigators at Harvard[6] developed a number of filters using combinations of transmission lines and lumped-parameter elements. At about the same time, a program of filter development was being pursued by the Naval Research Laboratory.[7] The Harvard efforts were chiefly concerned with filter applications in the microwave bands (around 4000 Mc), while the Naval Research Laboratory had concentrated on filter designs for use at frequencies below 1000 Mc. Further theoretical work on transmission-line filters by the Harvard staff has recently appeared.[8]

Practical considerations indicate that filters made up of coaxial transmission-line elements are of use above 200 Mc, where lumped-parameter-element filters are difficult to construct, up to about 4000 Mc, where waveguides and their associated reactive elements are most effective. The transmission-line filters to be discussed i this paper are limited to low-pass types and are base on the prototype section shown in Fig. 1. Electrically this section may be thought of as a tee, having coaxi

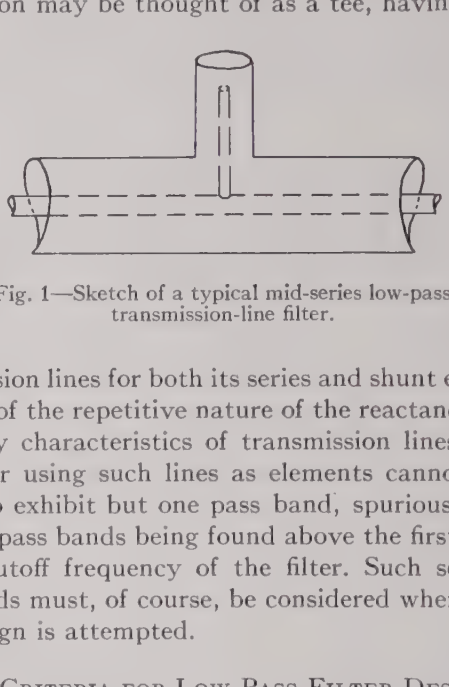

Fig. 1—Sketch of a typical mid-series low-pass transmission-line filter.

transmission lines for both its series and shunt elements Because of the repetitive nature of the reactance versu frequency characteristics of transmission lines, a low pass filter using such lines as elements cannot be ex pected to exhibit but one pass band, spurious or "sec ondary" pass bands being found above the first or "pri mary" cutoff frequency of the filter. Such secondary pass bands must, of course, be considered when a prac tical design is attempted.

II. Criteria for Low-Pass Filter Design

There are a number of factors which dictate the choice of a particular filter design for a given applica tion. Among these are the insertion loss in the pass band, the attenuation in the stop band, the steepness of the attenuation slope near the boundary of the at tenuation band, and the over-all phase-shift character istics of the filter. Depending upon the service for which the filter is intended, one or more of these may be of primary consequence. The pass-band insertion loss has been chosen in what follows as the factor to be used in judging the relative merit of a filter.

Most low-pass transmission-line filters exhibit a fairly constant image impedance in the low-frequency portion of their pass bands. Depending upon the design, this constant or "flat" portion of the image-impedance char acteristic may extend over a large or small part of the pass band. As the pass-band insertion loss of a filter depends upon the amount by which its image im pedance differs from that of the circuit in which it is to work, a first comparison of the relative merit of two filters may be had by making a plot of their image-impedance characteristics, the better filter being the one which has the "flatter" image-impedance curve.

Certain simplifying approximations have been made throughout this paper. First, transmission lines shorter

* Decimal classification: R386.2×R117.2. Original manuscript received by the Institute, February 12, 1947; revised manuscript received, April 20, 1948. A dissertation in electrical engineering presented to the faculty of the graduate school in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, Moore School of Electrical Engineering, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa. Most of this work was carried out for the Army Air Forces, Watson Laboratories, under contract number W28-099-ac-128.

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[1] W. P. Mason and R. A. Sykes, "The use of coaxial and balanced transmission lines in filters and wide-band transformers for high radio frequencies," *Bell Sys. Tech. Jour.*, vol. 16, pp. 275–302; July, 1937.

[2] L. M. Leeds, "Concentric narrow-band elimination filter," PROC. I.R.E., vol. 26, pp. 576–589; May, 1938.

[3] H. Salinger, "A coaxial filter for vestigial side-band transmission in television," PROC. I.R.E., vol. 29, pp. 115–120; March, 1941.

[4] L. R. Quarles, "Transmission lines as filters," *Communications*, vol. 26, pp. 34–38; June, 1946.

[5] C. L. Cuccia and H. R. Hegbar, "An ultra-high-frequency low-pass filter of coaxial construction," *RCA Rev.* Vol. 8, pp. 743–750; December, 1947.

[6] Harvard Radio Research Laboratory Reports, nos. 411–115A to D, United States Dept. of Commerce Publication PB 14175, 1945.

[7] Naval Research Laboratory Report, no. 2770, September, 1946.

[8] Radio Research Laboratory Staff, "Very-High-Frequency Techniques," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, N. Y., 1947; chaps. 26 and 27.

than about 5 electrical degrees have been neglected (connecting leads may fall in this class). Second, transmission lines of less than about 25 electrical degrees are treated as lumped inductors (the electrical lengths are computed at the cutoff frequency). Finally, dissipation has not been included because the Q of all of the filter elements is high.

III. Low-Pass Transmission-Line Filters for Use Below 1000 Mc

Low-pass transmission-line filters with cutoff frequencies below 1000 Mc may be constructed with dimensions such that the series transmission lines may be treated as lumped inductors and the leads connecting the shunt transmission lines may be neglected. Either midseries or midshunt termination may be used, but the midshunt termination gives a much flatter image-impedance characteristic, and hence is adopted. The equivalent circuit of the filter section is shown in Fig. 2 where L is the inductance representing the series transmission line, Z_{02} is the characteristic impedance of

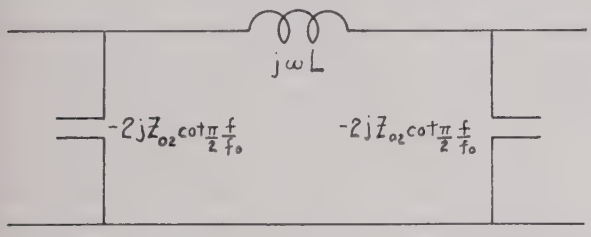

Fig. 2—Equivalent circuit of a low-pass transmission-line filter applicable below 1000 Mc.

the shunt transmission line, and f_0 is the frequency at which the shunt transmission line is quarter-wave resonant. The equation for the image impedance of a symmetrical midshunt filter section is

$$Z_{0\pi} = \frac{2Z_2}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{4Z_2}{Z_1}}} \tag{1}$$

where

Z_2 = the total shunt impedance, and

Z_1 = the total series impedance of a section.

If θ_2 be defined as the electrical length of the shunt transmission line at the filter cutoff frequency f_c, there results

$$\frac{Z_{0\pi}}{Z_{02}} = \frac{2\cot\frac{\theta_2 f}{f_c}}{\sqrt{\frac{4f_c}{bf}\cot\frac{\theta_2 f}{f_c} - 1}} \tag{2}$$

where

$$b = \frac{\omega_c L}{Z_{02}}. \tag{3}$$

The beginning of the primary stop band requires that

$$Z_1/4Z_2 = -1, \tag{4}$$

which introduces the relation between the parameters

$$b = 4\cot\theta_2. \tag{5}$$

A family of image-impedance curves obtained from (2) with b as the parameter is shown in Fig. 3. Inspection shows that if b is taken equal to 1.22 the image impedance varies by about 2 per cent over 80 per cent of the pass band.

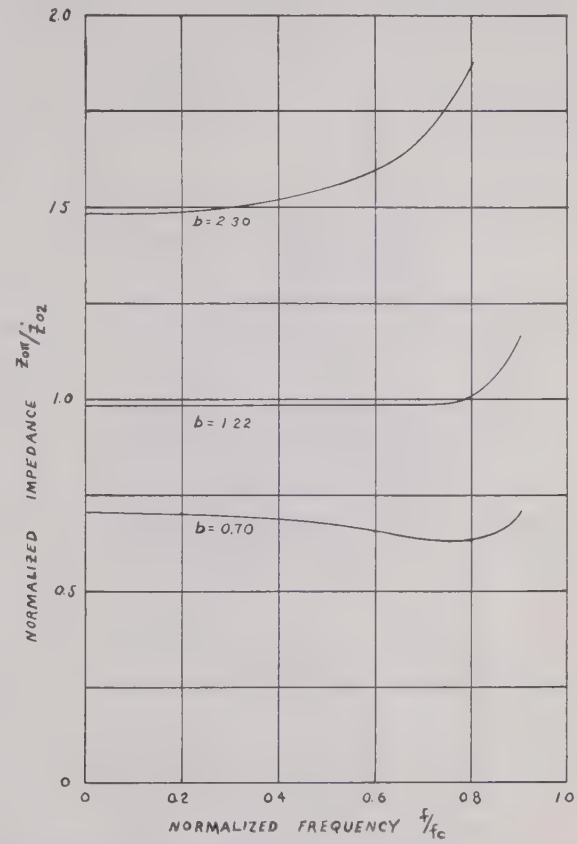

Fig. 3—Typical normalized image-impedance characteristics for the low-pass transmission-line filter prototype shown in Fig. 2.

To illustrate the ease with which a low-pass transmission-line filter of this type may be designed, suppose it is required that a low-pass filter to match a 50-ohm circuit and to cut off at 700 Mc be constructed. Fig. 3 indicates that for $b = 1.22$ the normalized image impedance is equal to 0.985 in the "flat" region, which gives for Z_{02} the value $50/0.985 = 51$ ohms. A coaxial transmission line having this characteristic impedance may be constructed in many ways; for instance, a $\frac{1}{2}$-inch pipe of 1/32-inch wall thickness may be used for the outer conductor, and a 3/16-inch diameter rod for the inner conductor. The terminating sections require shunt transmission lines with a characteristic impedance of 102 ohms. From (5), the electrical length of the shunt transmission lines is 73 electrical degrees at 700 Mc, corresponding to a physical length

of 3.42 inches. (This must be reduced somewhat in order to include the effect of fringing flux at the open end of the transmission line.) It is good practice to specify the outer conductors of the shunt transmission lines somewhat longer than the inner conductors, in order to confine stray fields which would otherwise appear at the open end of the lines. Finally, the dimensions of the series transmission line must be fixed such that the required value of L is obtained for each section. If the series transmission line is constructed as shown in Fig. 1 (that is, if it is a coaxial line whose inner and outer conductors are circular cylinders), there is little difficulty in calculating its length and the diameters of the inner and outer conductors. The early designs of the Naval Research Laboratory[7] used a series transmission line composed of a rectangular cylinder for an outer conductor and an inner conductor of circular cross section.

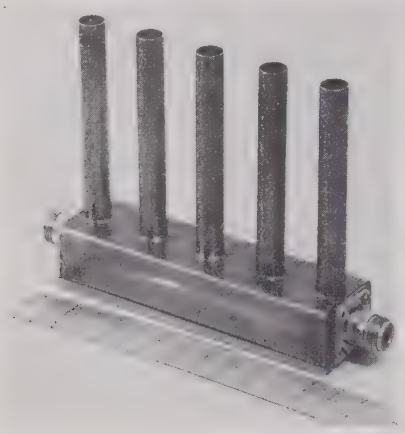

Fig. 4—External view of a low-pass transmission-line filter designed for a cutoff frequency of 700 Mc.

In such cases, perhaps the best method for arriving at a satisfactory design is to estimate the dimensions required and then make a final adjustment by varying the diameter of the inner conductor of the series transmission line. A filter constructed in this way is shown in Fig. 4. The calculated reactive attenuation and experimental insertion-loss curves are plotted in Fig. 5.

IV. Low-Pass Transmission-Line Filters for Use Below 2000 Mc

If a low-pass transmission-line filter is to have a cutoff frequency in the 1000 to 2000 Mc band, the lead connecting the shunt and series transmission lines may be electrically longer than 5 degrees and, therefore, should be considered in the analysis. This leads to the prototype filter section shown in Fig. 6, where the shunt

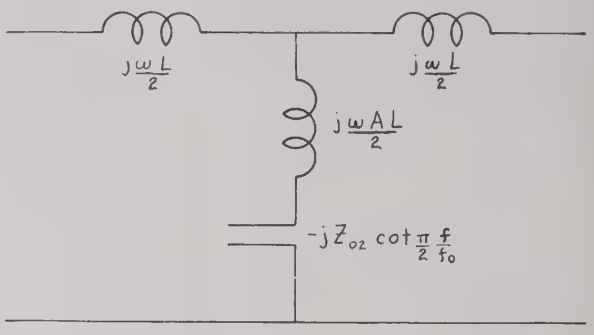

Fig. 6—Equivalent circuit of a mid series-terminated low-pass transmission-line filter prototype including shunt transmission-line lead inductance.

transmission-line lead inductance is taken as A times the inductance of one of the series-arm inductors. The

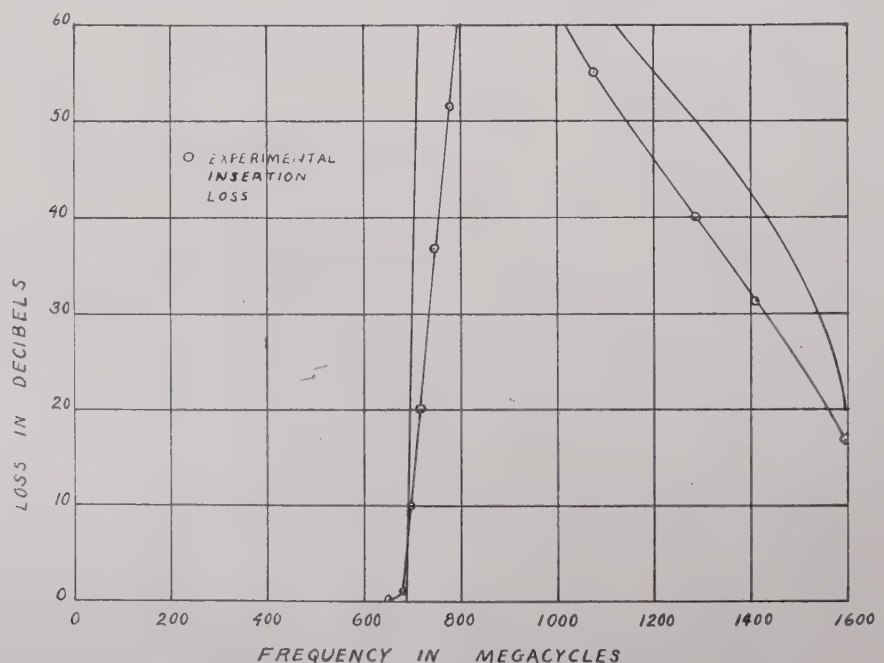

Fig. 5—Calculated attenuation and experimental insertion loss of the low-pass transmission-line filter shown in Fig. 4.

midshunt image impedance is

$$\frac{Z_{0\pi}}{Z_{02}} = \frac{2\cot\frac{\theta_2 f}{f_c} - \frac{b'A}{(1+2A)}\frac{f}{f_c}}{\sqrt{(1+2A)\left[\frac{4f_c}{b'f}\cot\frac{\theta_2 f}{f_c} - 1\right]}} \tag{6}$$

n which

$$b' = 4\cot\theta_2 = \frac{\omega_c L(1+2A)}{Z_{02}}. \tag{7}$$

f the quantities A and b' are chosen as design parameters, it remains to determine combinations of these parameters which yield acceptable image-impedance characteristics. An empirical way of doing this is to elect an arbitrary value for one of them and then fix he other by use of the relation

$$\left.\frac{Z_{0\pi}}{Z_{02}}\right]_{f/f_c=0.1} = \left.\frac{Z_{0\pi}}{Z_{02}}\right]_{f/f_c=0.7}. \tag{8}$$

Typical image-impedance characteristics obtained by his method are shown in Fig. 7. As all of them are relatively "flat," the values of A and b' which define any one of them may be used as the basis for a filter design. However, since the design parameter A merely indicates he value which the shunt transmission-line lead inductance must have and no method of designing a lead which has a given inductance has been given, the problem of specifying the dimensions of a lead in order that it have a prescribed inductance remains to be solved.

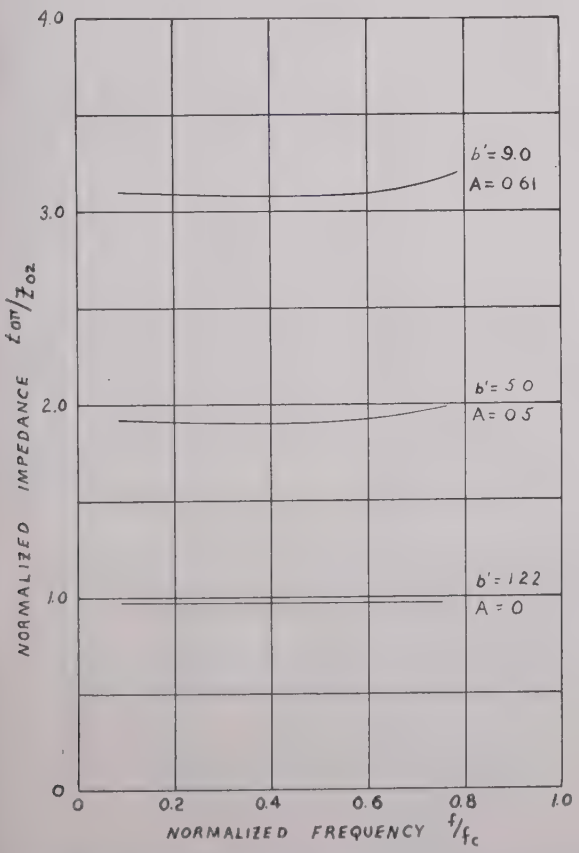

Fig. 7—Typical image-impedance characteristics for the low-pass transmission-line filter prototype shown in Fig. 6 (midshunt termination).

Equation (7) indicates that the cutoff frequency of a low-pass transmission-line filter is lowered by the presence of shunt transmission-line lead inductance. If it be assumed that all of the circuit parameters involved in a given filter design may be accurately calculated with the exception of a shunt transmission-line lead inductance, then a laboratory measurement of the cutoff frequency of a sample filter should enable the calculation of A. One parameter, other than the sought-for lead inductance, requires further refinement in its calculation. This is the electrical length of the shunt transmission line, for the fringing flux at the open end of such a line results in the equivalent electrical length of the line being longer than the actual mechanical dimensions dictate. Two methods of translating this fringing effect into analytical terms are available; either the line may be considered terminated by a capacitor of such magnitude as to electrically simulate the fringing flux, or the line may be considered longer by an amount sufficient to account for the end effect. Using these ideas, a filter design based on the methods of Section III was worked out, but with a cutoff frequency of 1600 Mc—a frequency thought sufficiently high to show up the effect of shunt transmission-line lead inductance. Photographs of this filter are shown in Figs. 8 and 9. It may be seen that the shunt transmission lines are identical for both

Fig. 8—External view of a low-pass transmission-line filter designed to cut off at 1600 Mc.

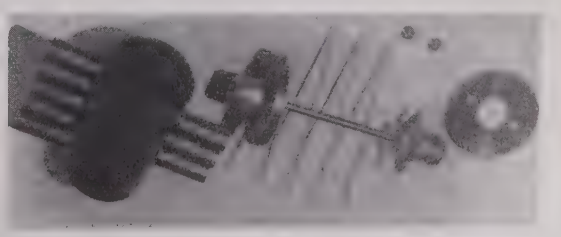

Fig. 9—Internal construction of the filter shown in Fig. 8.

the midseries and midshunt sections; the terminating sections, however, use a single shunt transmission line whereas the midseries sections employ two such lines in parallel. As expected, the experimental cutoff frequency was less than the design value of 1600 Mc. Accordingly, the shunt transmission lines were shortened until the filter cut off at about 1600 Mc. An empirical equation for the calculation of shunt transmission-line lead inductance obtained from these test results is

$$L_s = \frac{\mu}{4\pi}(D_k - d_k)\log_e \frac{3/8 l_k}{d_1} \qquad (9)$$

where

L_s = shunt transmission-line lead inductance in henries
μ = permeability, 1.26×10^{-8} for air
D_k = inner diameter of the outer conductor of the series transmission line (cm)
d_k = outer diameter of the inner conductor of the series transmission line (cm)
l_k = length of the series transmission line between adjacent shunt transmission lines (cm)
d_1 = diameter of the shunt transmission-line lead (cm).

In order to get a first check of (9), a larger filter having about the same cutoff frequency was constructed as shown in Fig. 10. Calculation of the parameter A by use of (9) gave a value of 2.09, whereas test results substituted into (7) indicated that A should be about 2.15.

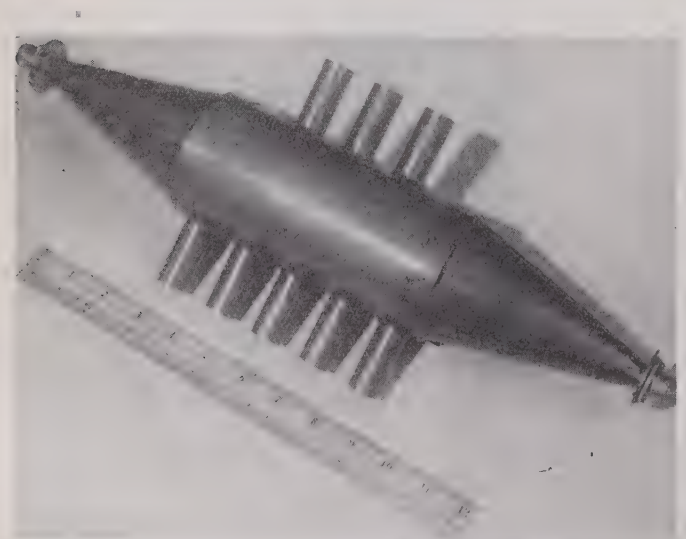

Fig. 10—External view of a mechanically large low-pass transmission-line filter designed to cut off at 1600 Mc. The internal details are substantially the same as for the smaller filter shown in Fig. 12.

Therefore, it appears that for filters having dimensions of the order of those shown in the photographs, the empirical equation (9) may be used.

V. Low-Pass Transmission-Line Filters for Use Below 3000 Mc

When the cutoff frequency of a transmission-line low-pass filter is extended up to about 3000 Mc, the series transmission line may have to be treated as a true line rather than as a lumped-parameter circuit element. That this is so may perhaps best be shown by comparing the insertion loss of the filters discussed in Section IV with the calculated attenuation. Figs. 11 and

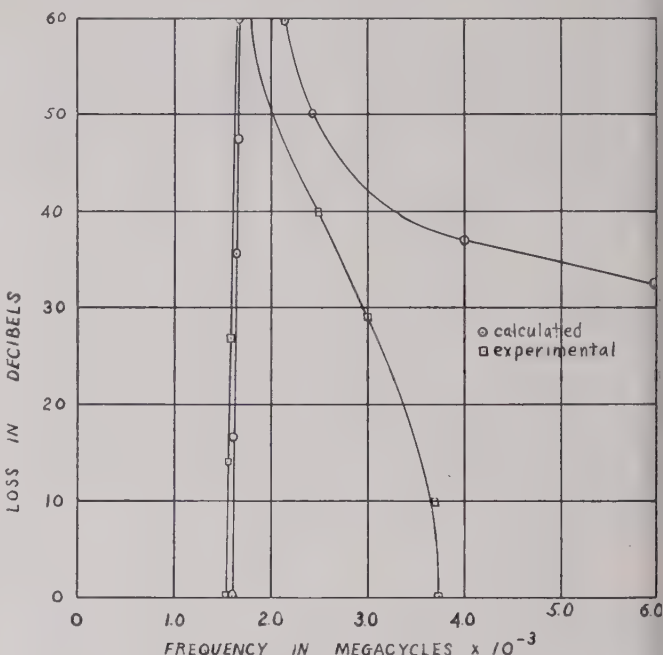

Fig. 11—Calculated attenuation and experimental insertion loss for the low-pass transmission-line filter shown in Figs. 8 and 9. The calculated attenuation is based on the analysis of Section IV.

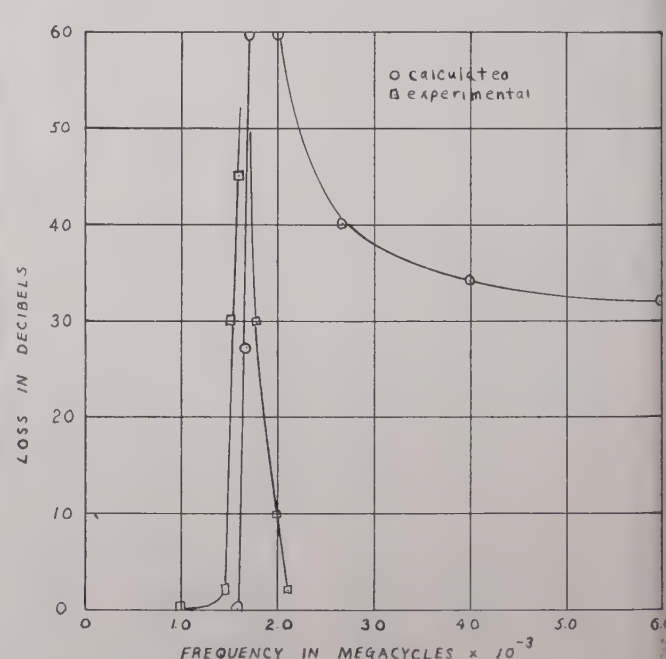

Fig. 12—Calculated attenuation and experimental insertion loss for the low-pass transmission-line filter shown in Fig. 10. The calculated attenuation is based on the analysis of Section IV.

12 show the experimental insertion loss and the reactive attenuation calculated from the equivalent circuit of Fig. 6 for the small and large filters, respectively. No agreement between theoretical and experimental results is evident except in the lower one-third of the frequency band shown. It is not expected that the insertion and attenuation losses should be the same, for they are different quantities; however, the discrepancies shown in Figs. 11 and 12 cannot be explained on this basis.

If the filter analysis is modified in that the series transmission line is treated as a line, and, further, if this series transmission line is represented by its exact equivalent lumped-parameter representation, the filter prototype becomes that shown in Fig. 13, where

$$Z_A = jZ_k \sin 2\phi f/f_c$$
$$Z_B = -jZ_k \cos tf/f_c \tag{10}$$

in which

Z_k = the characteristic impedance of the series transmission line, and

2ϕ = the electrical length of this line at the cutoff frequency f_c. Two new parameters, b'' and a, are introduced through the defining equations

$$b'' = \frac{\omega_c L_s}{Z_{02}} \quad \text{and} \quad a = Z_k/Z_{02}. \tag{11}$$

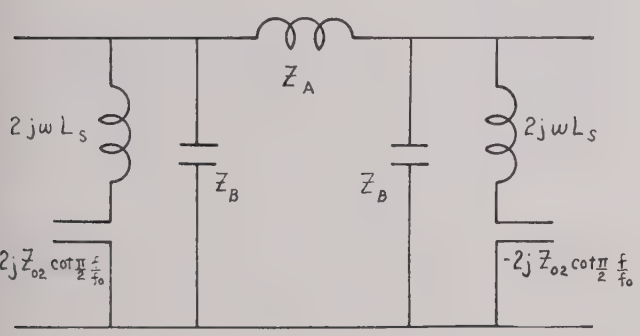

Fig. 13—Equivalent circuit of a midshunt-terminated low-pass transmission-line filter prototype including a more exact representation of the series transmission line.

The equation for the midshunt image impedance is

$$\frac{Z_{0\pi}}{Z_{02}} = \pm \frac{j[b''f/f_c - \cot \theta_2 f/f_c][a \cot \phi f/f_c]}{[b''f/f_c - \cot \theta_2 f/f_c - a \cot \phi f/f_c]\sqrt{1 + 4Z_2/Z_1}}, \tag{12}$$

in which the algebraic sign is chosen such that the impedance is positive when real, and

$$\frac{Z_1}{4Z_2} = \frac{\sin 2\phi f/f_c[b''f/f_c - \cot \theta_2 f/f_c - a \cot \phi f/f_c]}{2 \cot \phi f/f_c[\cot \theta_2 f/f_c - b''f/f_c]}. \tag{13}$$

The upper cutoff frequency introduces the relation

$$\frac{-2 \cot \phi[\cot \theta_2 - b'']}{b'' - \cot \theta_2 - a \cot \phi} = \sin 2\phi \tag{14}$$

or

$$b'' = \cot \theta_2 - a \tan \phi. \tag{15}$$

In order to illustrate how the introduction of these equations improves the agreement between the experimental insertion loss and calculated reactive attenuation, the parameters ϕ, θ_2, a, and b'' were evaluated for each of the filters under consideration, and the reactive attenuation recalculated. The results are shown in Fig. 14 for the small filter and in Fig. 15 for the larger one. A much better agreement between experimental and theoretical results is evident.

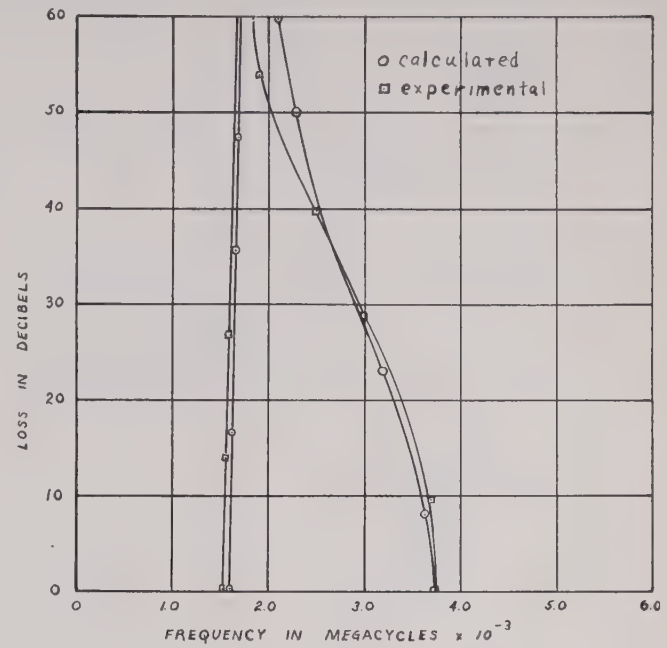

Fig. 14—Calculated attenuation and experimental insertion loss for the low-pass transmission-line filter shown in Figs. 8 and 9. The calculated attenuation is based on the analysis of Section V.

To make use of the analysis given in this section, it is necessary that combinations of design parameters yielding relatively flat image-impedance characteristics be obtained. Within limits set by mechanical considerations, any two of the parameters may be arbitrarily chosen and then the third one fixed such that the filter image-impedance characteristic is sufficiently flat in the pass band. An example of the sort of characteristic which may be expected is shown in Fig. 16, the parameter values being $a = 2$, $\theta_2 = 0.7$, and $\phi = 0.3$.

VI. Low-Pass Transmission-Line Filters for Use Below 4000 Mc

If a transmission-line low-pass filter is to have a cutoff frequency between 3000 and 4000 Mc, the shunt transmission-line leads may be sufficiently long to war-

rant a transmission-line representation. To illustrate the need for such a refinement, a filter model was constructed to have a cutoff frequency of 3500 Mc, the design method being that of Section V and the particular filter parameters those defining the image-impedance characteristic of Fig. 16. The design details are as follows:

From Fig. 16,

$$\frac{Z_{0\pi}}{Z_{02}} = 0.85, \tag{16}$$

and, in order to match a 52-ohm circuit,

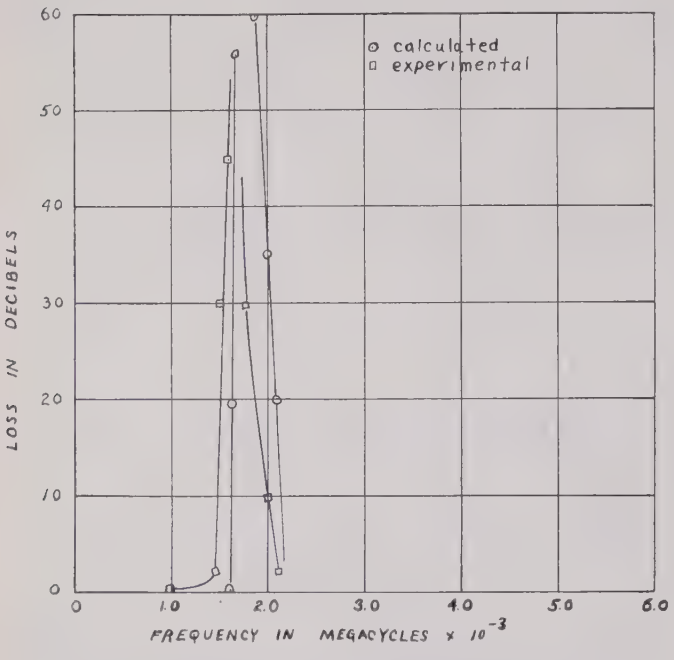

Fig. 15—Calculated attenuation and experimental insertion loss for the low-pass transmission-line filter shown in Fig. 10. The calculated attenuation is based on the analysis of Section V.

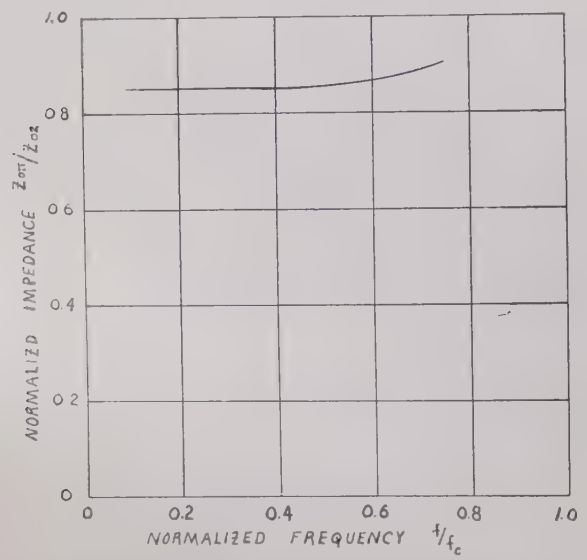

Fig. 16—Image-impedance characteristic derived from the equivalent circuit of Fig. 13. The parameters are $a=2$, $\phi=0.3$, and $\theta_2=0.7$.

$$Z_{02} = 61.3 = 138 \log_{10} \frac{D_2}{d_2} \tag{17}$$

or

$$D_2 = 2.78 d_2. \tag{18}$$

Also,

$$Z_k = 138 \log_{10} \frac{D_k}{d_k} = aZ_{02} = 122.6 \tag{19}$$

or

$$D_k = 7.74 d_k. \tag{20}$$

The parameter b'' is evaluated from (15) and is found to be equal to 0.569. From (11), the shunt transmission-line lead inductance is

$$L_s = \frac{9.96 \times 10^{-9}}{2\pi}. \tag{21}$$

Using this value of inductance in the empirical (9) and substituting the value of D_k in terms of d_k, there is

$$d_k = \frac{2 \times 0.996}{1.26 \times 6.74 \times \log_e \dfrac{3/8\, l_k}{d_1}}. \tag{22}$$

Since $\phi = 0.3$ in the design, the series transmission-line length l_k, which is 2ϕ at the cutoff frequency, becomes 0.322 inch. As one dimension is arbitrary, set $d_1 = 1/16$ inch. Then d_k is 0.14 inch and D_k becomes 1.08 inch. Mechanically, d_1 and d_2 are equal, since they are the same conductor. This gives

$$D_2 = 2.78 d_2 = 2.78 d_1 = 0.174 \text{ inch}. \tag{23}$$

The shunt transmission-line length is 0.7 radians at f_c or 0.375 inch which is reduced to about 0.275 inch when corrected for end fringing. A filter constructed according to these dimensions is shown in the photograph, Fig. 17. When tested, it was found that the shunt line length had to be reduced to 0.10 inch in order to obtain the 3500-Mc cutoff frequency. The large difference between the prescribed and required shunt transmission-line lengths underlines the need for a more exact analysis.

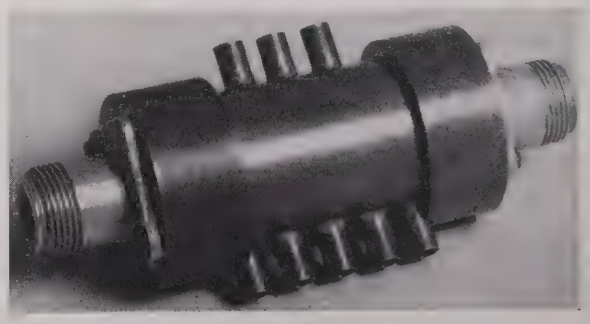

Fig. 17—External view of a low-pass transmission-line filter designed to cut off at 3500 Mc.

The consideration of the shunt transmission-line connecting lead as a transmission line requires some basis for calculating the electrical parameters of said lead. Since such a lead has as a return conductor the outer conductor of the series transmission line, and its inductance and capacitance are, therefore, functions of position along the lead, an exact representation of it would involve treating it as a nonuniform transmission line. An empirical relation which has yielded results which compare favorably with experiment is based on the assumption that the lead may be treated as a uniform coaxial transmission line in which the inner conductor is the lead itself and an imaginary outer conductor having a diameter equal to the spacing of adjacent shunt transmission lines is postulated. The shunt element of a filter section is then composed of two transmission lines connected in tandem, the first one being the lead to the shunt transmission line and the second the shunt transmission line itself. The input impedance to the combination is, then,

$$Z_i = \frac{jZ_{01}\left[-Z_{02}\cot\frac{\theta_2 f}{f_c}\cos\frac{\theta_1 f}{f_c}+Z_{01}\sin\frac{\theta_1 f}{f_c}\right]}{Z_{01}\cos\frac{\theta_1 f}{f_c}+Z_{02}\cot\frac{\theta_2 f}{f_c}\sin\frac{\theta_1 f}{f_c}} \tag{24}$$

where

Z_{01} = the characteristic impedance of the shunt transmission-line lead, and

θ_1 = is its electrical length at the cutoff frequency f_c.

Making the substitution $Z_{01}=Z_k/d$ and giving the quantity a the same significance as before, we may write

$$Z_1 = jZ_k \sin 2\phi f/f_c \tag{25}$$

and

$$\frac{Z_1}{4Z_2} = \frac{\sin\frac{2\phi f}{f_c}\left[ad\cot\frac{\phi f}{f_c}+d^2\cot\frac{\theta_2 f}{f_c}\tan\frac{\theta_1 f}{f_c}\cot\frac{\phi f}{f_c}-a\tan\frac{\theta_1 f}{f_c}+d\cot\frac{\theta_2 f}{f_c}\right]}{2\cot\frac{\phi f}{f_c}\left[a\tan\frac{\theta_1 f}{f_c}-d\cot\frac{\theta_2 f}{f_c}\right]}. \tag{26}$$

The upper cutoff frequency requires that

$$\begin{aligned} &ad\sin 2\phi\cot\phi + d^2\sin 2\phi\cot\phi\cot\theta_2\tan\theta_1 \\ &\quad - a\sin 2\phi\tan\theta_1 + d\sin 2\phi\cot\theta_2 \\ &\quad = 2d\cot\phi\cot\theta_2 - 2a\cot\phi\tan\theta_1, \end{aligned} \tag{27}$$

from which the following may be obtained:

$$\tan\theta_1 = \frac{d\cot\theta_2\cot\phi - ad}{d^2\cot\theta_2 + a\cot\phi} \tag{28}$$

$$\tan\theta_2 = \frac{-(d^2 - d\cot\theta_1\cot\phi)}{ad\cot\theta_1 + a\cot\phi} \tag{29}$$

$$\tan\phi = \frac{d\cot\theta_2 - a\tan\theta_1}{d(a + d\tan\theta_1\cot\theta_2)}. \tag{30}$$

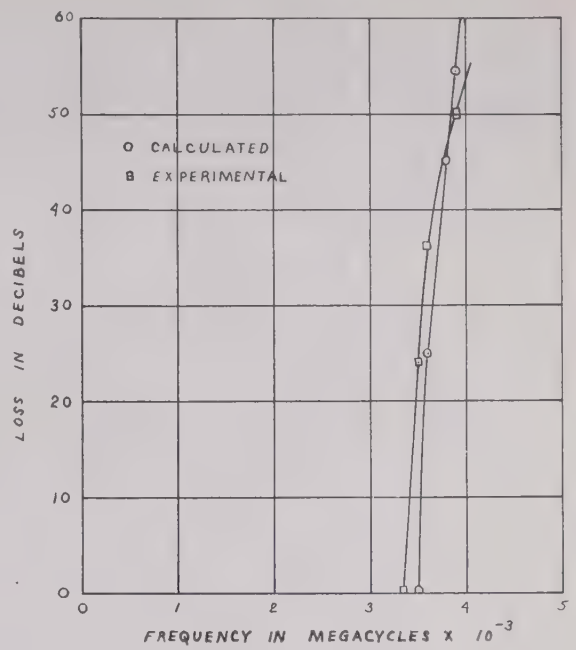

Fig. 18—Calculated attenuation and experimental insertion loss for the filter shown in Fig. 17.

To illustrate what may be expected from this final analysis of the low-pass transmission-line filter, the parameters of the filter defined by (16) to (23) were calculated with the exception of θ_2, which resulted in such poor correlation between experimental and theoretical shunt transmission-line length. These are $a=2.0$, $d=1.25$, $\theta_1=50°$, and $\phi=17.2°$. Substitution of these values into (29) gives a value for θ_2 equal to 12.05°. This is to be compared with the experimental value of 12.9° (corrected for end fringing). The calculated reactive attenuation and measured insertion loss are shown in Fig. 18. Measurements could not be carried above the frequency where the curves end because of limitations imposed by the laboratory test equipment.

Acknowledgment

The author wishes to thank R. T. Smith for his contributions to Sections IV and V of this paper.

Parabolic Loci for Two Tuned Coupled Circuits*

SZE-HOU CHANG†, ASSOCIATE, IRE

Summary—**It is pointed out that the reciprocal of the system-response function E_1/E_2, or its equivalent, of conventional two-mesh tuned coupled circuits when plotted in the complex plane leads to parabolic loci under certain restrictions. The simple geometric properties of parabolas will facilitate the design work and may throw lights as to the applications and limitations of the coupled circuits in different fields, electrical or nonelectrical.**

1. Introduction

TUNED COUPLED CIRCUITS have been the subject of many investigations.[1,2] They lead to analytic formulas or sets of precalculated curves. The formulas are usually quite complicated, and an enormous number of curves are usually required to meet the variations in different parameters. This paper points out that the reciprocal of the system-response function[3] of conventional two-mesh tuned coupled circuits, when plotted in the complex plane, will give a parabolic locus under certain restrictions. Many well-known properties of the coupled circuit can thus be deduced from the simple and familiar geometrical properties of the parabola. New lights may be thrown to the adaptabilities or limitations of the coupled circuit in its multiple fields of applications, either electrical or nonelectrical.

For the application in design work, in order to meet the variation in different parameters such as the tightness of coupling, ratios of the Q's of the primary and secondary, and their detuning, a complete set of parabolas of different focal lengths, but with common vertex, is drawn. By choice of the proper parabola and the corresponding origin, the system-response function can be read directly with a suitable conversion of the scale of the j axis for the frequency.

We shall deal with the type of coupled circuits which have a narrow pass band as compared with the central frequency, and the ratios of Q's and the detuning of primary and secondary are not too large. We shall also assume that the coupling impedance and the load impedance[4] do not vary very much in the narrow frequency range.

Then follows a specific and detailed treatment of the inductively coupled circuits with the driving voltage in series with the primary. Conversion to a circuit having a constant-current source in parallel with the primary is well known. The treatment is divided into three cases: (A) primary and secondary circuits identically tuned and having the same Q; (B) primary and secondary identically tuned but having different Q's; (C) primary and secondary detuned and having different Q's. This type of circuit was chosen because it is much discussed in literature and thus makes comparisons easier.[5] The idea can be extended to other types of circuits with similar restrictions.

2. General Circuit with Constant-Voltage Driving Source in Series with the Primary

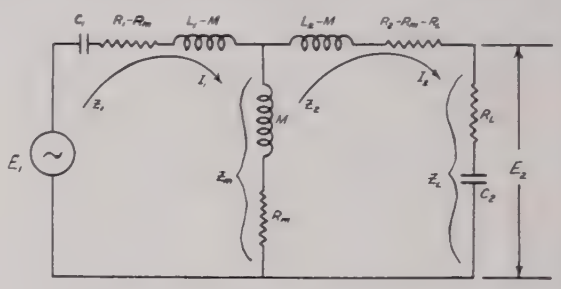

Fig. 1—General two coupled circuits with driving voltage in series with the primary.

The voltage at the output in Fig. 1 is

$$E_2 = I_2 Z_L = \frac{-E_1 Z_m Z_L}{Z_1 Z_2 - Z_m^2}. \tag{1}$$

The reciprocal of the system-response function is

$$\frac{E_1}{E_2} = -\frac{1}{Z_m Z_L}(Z_1 Z_2 - Z_m^2). \tag{2}$$

To reduce the discussion to one of the dimensionless parameters, let

$$\frac{R_1 R_2}{Z_m Z_L} = g \tag{3}$$

$$\frac{Z_1}{R_1} = z_1 \tag{4}$$

$$\frac{Z_2}{R_2} = z_2 \tag{5}$$

and

$$\frac{Z_m^2}{R_1 R_2} = z_m^2. \tag{6}$$

Then (2) becomes

$$\frac{E_1}{E_2} = -g(z_1 z_2 - z_m^2). \tag{7}$$

* Decimal classification: R142.3. Original manuscript received by the Institute, February 14, 1947; revised manuscript received, June 28, 1948. Presented, 1947 IRE National Convention, New York, N. Y., March 4, 1947.

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[1] C. B. Aiken, "Two-mesh tuned coupled circuit filters," PROC. I.R.E., vol. 25, pp. 230–273; February, 1937.

[2] F. E. Terman, "Radio Engineers' Handbook," McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, N. Y., 1943; section 3, pars. 3–9 and their included references.

[3] The reciprocal of the system-response function is here defined as E_1/E_2 where E_1 and E_2 are voltages at input and output, respectively.

[4] The load impedance is here used to mean the portion of impedance of the secondary circuit across which E_2 is developed; i.e., $Z_L = E_2/I_2$.

[5] See footnote references 1 and 2.

Under the assumptions that the frequency range is narrow and Z_m and Z_L contain elements so that z_m^2 and g vary very little with frequency as compared with z_1z_2, we may regard z_m^2 and g as constant, although they may be complex.

Now, let

$$\frac{E_1}{E_2}\Big/ g = S/\underline{\theta}. \tag{8}$$

Substituting (8) into (7),

$$S/\underline{\theta} = \frac{E_1}{E_2}\Big/ g = -z_1z_2 + z_m^2. \tag{9}$$

The only variable part now left in the right-hand side is $-z_1z_2$, which we shall discuss more in detail.

From (4) and (5),

$$z_1 = \frac{Z_1}{R_1} = \frac{R_1 + jX_1}{R_1} = 1 + jx_1 \tag{10}$$

$$z_2 = \frac{Z_2}{R_2} = \frac{R_2 + jX_2}{R_2} = 1 + jx_2 \tag{11}$$

where

X_1 = total reactance of the primary circuit alone

X_2 = total reactance of the secondary circuit alone

$$x_1 = \frac{X_1}{R_1} = j\frac{\left(\omega L_1 - \frac{1}{\omega C_1}\right)}{R_1} = j\frac{\omega_1 L_1}{R_1}\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_1} - \frac{\omega_1}{\omega}\right)$$

$$= jQ_1\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_1} - \frac{\omega_1}{\omega}\right) \tag{12}$$

$$x_2 = \frac{X_2}{R_2} = j\frac{\left(\omega L_2 - \frac{1}{\omega C_2}\right)}{R_2} = j\frac{\omega_2 L_2}{R_2}\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_2} - \frac{\omega_2}{\omega}\right)$$

$$= jQ_2\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_2} - \frac{\omega_2}{\omega}\right) \tag{13}$$

$$\left.\begin{aligned} \omega_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{L_1C_1}} \\ \omega_2 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{L_2C_2}} \\ Q_1 &= \frac{\omega_1 L_1}{R_1} \\ Q_2 &= \frac{\omega_2 L_2}{R_2} \end{aligned}\right\} \tag{14}$$

Hence,

$$-z_1z_2 = -(1+jx_1)(1+jx_2)$$

$$= -\left[1+jQ_1\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_1} - \frac{\omega_1}{\omega}\right)\right]\left[1+jQ_2\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_2} - \frac{\omega_2}{\omega}\right)\right]. \tag{15}$$

We shall discuss the following cases:

Case (A). Primary and secondary identically tuned and having the same Q.

Case (B). Primary and secondary identically tuned but having different Q's.

Case (C). Primary and secondary detuned and having different Q's.

Case (A). $\omega_1 = \omega_2$, $Q_1 = Q_2$

Let

$$\left.\begin{aligned} \omega_1,\ \omega_2 &= \omega_0 \\ Q_1,\ Q_2 &= Q_0 \\ x_1 &= x_2 = x \\ z_1 &= z_2 = z \end{aligned}\right\}. \tag{16}$$

Then

$$-z_1z_2 = -z^2 = -(1+jx)^2 = -(1-x^2) - j2x. \tag{17}$$

Let u and v be the real and imaginary part of z_1z_2, respectively; then

$$u = -(1-x^2) \tag{18}$$

$$v = -2x. \tag{19}$$

Here x is a variable with respect to frequency, and, by eliminating it from (18) and (19), we get

$$v^2 = 4(1+u) \tag{20}$$

which is an equation for the parabola, with vertex at $(u, v) \equiv (-1, 0)$ and focus at the origin, the latus rectum is equal to 4. See Fig. 2.

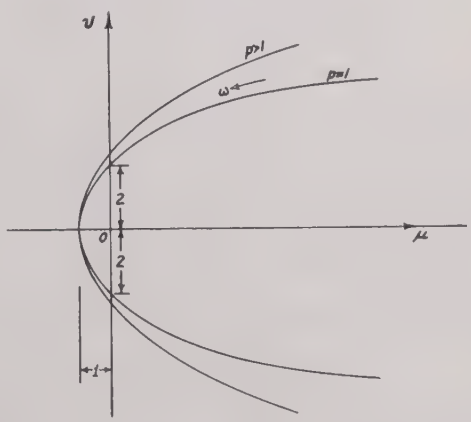

Fig. 2—Parabolic plottings of $-z_1z_2$ in complex plane for case (A) $(\omega_1 = \omega_2, Q_1 = Q_2)$ and case (B) $\left(\omega_1 = \omega_2, \frac{Q_2}{Q_1} = e\right)$.

Case (B). $\omega_1, \omega_2 = \omega_0, Q_1 = Q_0, Q_2 = eQ_0$

Let

$$\left.\begin{aligned} \frac{\omega}{\omega_1} - \frac{\omega_1}{\omega} &= \frac{\omega}{\omega_2} - \frac{\omega_2}{\omega} = \frac{\omega}{\omega_0} - \frac{\omega_0}{\omega} = \delta \\ x_1 &= jQ_0\delta \\ x_2 &= jeQ_0\delta \\ z_1 &= 1 + jQ_0\delta \\ z_2 &= 1 + jeQ_0\delta \end{aligned}\right\}. \tag{21}$$

Then

$$-z_1z_2 = -(1 + jQ_0\delta)(1 + jeQ_0\delta)$$
$$= -(1 - eQ_0^2\delta^2) - jQ_0\delta(1 + e) \quad (22)$$

and

$$u = -(1 - eQ_0^2\delta^2) \quad (23)$$
$$v = -Q_0\delta(1 + e). \quad (24)$$

Eliminating δ, which is variable with respect to ω, from (23) and (24), we get

$$v^2 = \frac{(1 + e)^2}{e}(1 + u). \quad (25)$$

Let

$$p = \frac{1}{4}\frac{(1 + e)^2}{e}. \quad (26)$$

Then (25) becomes

$$v^2 = 4p(1 + u). \quad (27)$$

This is also an equation of parabola, with vertex at $(u, v) \equiv (-1, 0)$, and the latus rectum is $4p$. (See Fig. 2.)

Case (C). $\omega_1 \neq \omega_2$, $Q_1 \neq Q_2$

Let

$$\left.\begin{aligned} Q_1 &= Q_0 \\ Q_2 &= eQ_0 \\ \omega_1 &= \omega_0 \\ \omega_2 &= h\omega_0 \end{aligned}\right\}. \quad (28)$$

Then

$$x_1 = Q_1\delta_1 = Q_1\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_1} - \frac{\omega_1}{\omega}\right) = Q_1\left(\frac{\omega^2 - \omega_1^2}{\omega\omega_1}\right)$$
$$= Q_1\frac{\omega + \omega_1}{\omega\omega_1}(\omega - \omega_1) = 2Q_1\frac{(\omega - \omega_1)^{**}}{\omega_1}$$
$$= 2Q_1(\gamma_1 - 1) = 2Q_0(\gamma - 1) \quad (29)$$

$$x_2 = 2Q_2(\gamma_2 - 1) = 2eQ_0\left(\frac{\gamma}{h} - 1\right) \quad (30)$$

where

$$\gamma_1 = \frac{\omega}{\omega_1} = \gamma$$
$$\gamma_2 = \frac{\omega}{\omega_2} = \frac{\gamma}{h} \quad (31)$$

and

$$-z_1z_2 = -[1 + j2Q_0(\gamma - 1)]\left[1 + j2eQ_0\left(\frac{\gamma}{h} - 1\right)\right] \quad (32)$$
$$= -\left[1 - 4eQ_0^2(\gamma - 1)\left(\frac{\gamma}{h} - 1\right)\right]$$
$$- j2Q_0\left[\gamma\left(1 + \frac{e}{h}\right) - (1 + e)\right].$$

The real part is

$$u = -\left[1 - 4eQ_0^2(\gamma - 1)\left(\frac{\gamma}{h} - 1\right)\right], \quad (33)$$

and the imaginary part is

$$v = -2Q_0\left[\gamma\left(1 + \frac{e}{h}\right) - 1 + e)\right]. \quad (34)$$

Eliminating γ from (33) and (34), we get

$$(v - \beta)^2 = 4p[u + (1 + \alpha)] \quad (35)$$

where

$$p = \frac{1}{4}\frac{(h + e)^2}{eh} \quad (36)$$

$$\alpha = \frac{e}{h}Q_0^2(h - 1)^2 \quad (37)$$

$$\beta = \frac{Q_0(h - 1)(e - h)}{h}. \quad (38)$$

Equation (35) is again an equation of parabola, but here the vertex is at $(u, v) \equiv (-1-\alpha, \beta)$ and the u-axis is no longer the axis of symmetry. (See Fig. 3.)

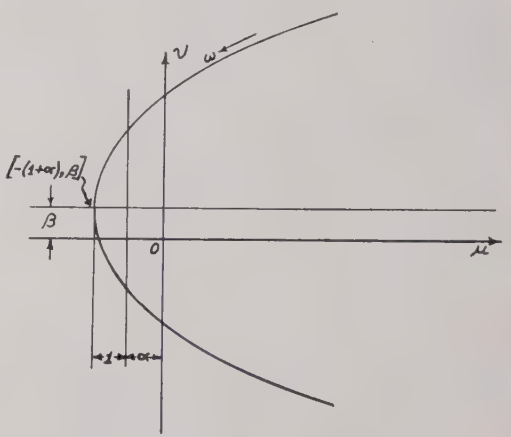

Fig. 3—Parabolic plotting of $-z_1z_2$ in complex plane for case (C) $\left(\frac{\omega_2}{\omega_1} = h, \frac{Q_2}{Q_1} = e\right)$.

3. Parabolic Plottings of the Reciprocal of System-Response Function in Complex Plane

For convenience sake, we reproduce (9).

$$S/\theta = \frac{E_1}{E_2}\Big/ g = -z_1z_2 + z_m^2. \quad (39)$$

We have shown in Sections 3 to 5 that the loci of $-z_1z_2$ are parabolas for three cases; we have assumed that the frequency range is narrow, and thus z_m^2 and g may be regarded as constant. Referring to (39), the addition of z_m^2 to $-z_1z_2$ is a linear transformation, which results in a translation of the original parabola of $-z_1z_2$. The factor $+z_m^2$ is a real dimensionless quantity if the coupling is purely resistive, inductive, or capacitive. For complex couplings, it will be complex.

So long as g may be regarded as constant, S/θ will give both the relative amplitude and phase characteristic of the reciprocal of the system-response function E_1/E_2. If g is not constant and its variation with frequency is known, E_1/E_2 may be found by multiplying the vector from the parabolic plotting by g.

The amplitude and phase characteristics of system-response function are usually plotted against frequency. Means for the determination of frequency scale can be found from the expression for v. Take the case (C), which is the most general, from (34).

$$v = -2Q_0\left[\gamma\left(1+\frac{e}{h}\right)-(1+e)\right]$$

$$= -2Q_0\left[(\gamma-1)\left(1+\frac{e}{h}\right)-e\left(1-\frac{1}{h}\right)\right]. \qquad (40)$$

This expression is subject to the assumption that $(\omega+\omega_1)/\omega\omega_1=2/\omega_1$ and $(\omega+\omega_2)/\omega\omega_2=2/\omega_2$.

Let

$$a = \gamma - 1 = \frac{\omega-\omega_0}{\omega_0}. \qquad (41)$$

Equation (40) becomes

$$v = -2Q_0\left[a\left(1+\frac{e}{h}\right)-e\left(1-\frac{1}{h}\right)\right]. \qquad (42)$$

Solving for a,

$$\textit{Case (C)}. \quad a = \left[-\frac{v}{2Q_0}+e\left(1-\frac{1}{h}\right)\right]\frac{h}{h+e} \qquad (43)$$

$$\textit{Case (B)}. \quad h = 1$$

$$a = -\frac{v}{2Q_0}\frac{1}{1+e} \qquad (44)$$

$$\textit{Case (A)}. \quad e = 1$$

$$a = -\frac{v}{4Q_0}. \qquad (45)$$

Equations (45) to (43) show that the fractional frequency deviation a is directly proportional to the scale of the v-axis.

A set of parabolas with different p's corresponding to different ratios of $Q_2/Q_1=e$ and $\omega_2/\omega_1=h$ should be constructed. (See Fig. 4.) The correspondence between e, h, and p as given by (36) is reproduced here.

$$\textit{Case (C)}. \qquad p = \frac{1}{4}\frac{(h+e)^2}{eh}. \qquad (46)$$

$$\textit{Case (B)}. \quad h = 1$$

$$p = \frac{1}{4}\frac{(1+e)^2}{e}. \qquad (47)$$

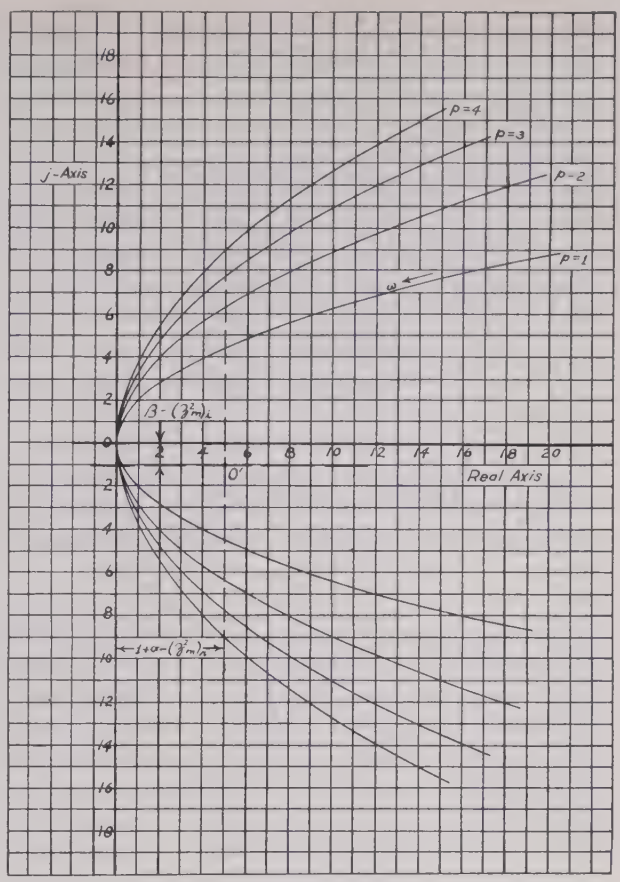

Fig. 4—Parabolic loci of $\frac{E_1}{E_2}/g$ in complex plane for two coupled circuits.

$$\textit{Case (A)}. \qquad \begin{matrix} e = 1 \\ p = 1. \end{matrix} \qquad (48)$$

The vertex is located at:

$$\textit{Case (C)}. \qquad \left.\begin{matrix} (u, v) \equiv [1+\alpha-(z_m^2)r, \beta-(z_m^2)_i] \\ \alpha = \frac{e}{h}Q_0^2(h-1)^2 \\ \beta = \frac{Q_0(h-1)(e-h)}{h} \\ z_m^2 = \frac{Z_m^2}{R_1R_2} = (z_m^2)_r + j(z_m^2)_i \end{matrix}\right\} \qquad (49)$$

$$\textit{Case (B)}. \qquad \begin{matrix} h = 1 \\ \alpha = \beta = 0 \end{matrix}$$

$$(u, v) \equiv [1-(z_m^2)_r, -(z_m^2)_i]. \qquad (50)$$

Case (A). Same as *case (B)*.

$$(u, v) \equiv [1-(z_m^2)_r, -(z_m^2)_i]. \qquad (51)$$

In order to get the reciprocal of the system-response function

$$\frac{E_1}{E_2}/g$$

(S, amplitude, and θ, phase) for the coupled circuits, we may summarize the procedure as follows:

(a) Compute e, h, p, α, β, and z_m^2 from the given data.

(b) Choose the parabola with the proper p as computed in (a) and Fig. 4.

(c) Determine the origin so that the vertex of the parabola is given by (49), (50), or (51).

(d) A transparent polar co-ordinate paper or cellulose sheet can be put over the parabola with the center set at the chosen origin. S and θ can then be read directly on the parabola with the aid of a rotating bar pivoted at the center.

(e) The frequency is proportional to the scale of j-axis according to (43), (44), or (45).

(f) If coupled circuits are cascaded by isolating vacuum tubes the magnitude of the over-all response can be obtained by adding the ratio of E_1/E_2 expressed in db the angle can also be added directly.

Contributors to Proceedings of the I.R.E.

SZE-HOU CHANG

Sze-Hou Chang (S'46–A'48) was born on September 23, 1913, in Ningpo, Chekiang, China. He was graduated from Chiao Tung University in Shanghai, with the B.S. degree in electrical communications in 1934. In 1946 he received the M.S. degree in communications engineering, and in 1948, the Ph.D. degree in engineering sciences and applied physics, both from Harvard University.

During the period 1934–1945, Dr. Chang served successively as assistant, lecturer, and professor in Tsing Hua University, Hunan University, and Chiao Tung University, all in China. He was associated with the Air Force's Electronic Research Laboratories (formerly, Cambridge Field Station of the Watson Laboratories) in Cambridge, Mass., as an electronic engineer from 1946 until 1948.

Dr. Chang is now associate professor of electronic research at Northeastern University, in Boston, Mass.

❖

H. R. HEGBAR

Howard R. Hegbar (S'41–A'42–SM'46) was born in Valley City, N.D., on February 22, 1915. He received the B.S. degree in electrical engineering from the North Dakota Agricultural College in 1937. He then attended the University of Wisconsin as a Wisconsin Alumni Research Scholar, Fellow and Research Assistant, receiving the Ph.D. degree in electrical engineering in 1941. He was associated with the research department of the RCA Manufacturing Co., at Harrison, N. J., until 1942, transferring then to RCA Laboratories Division at Princeton, N. J., as a research engineer working on uhf and microwave power tube problems.

In October, 1946, Dr. Hegbar joined the Goodyear Aircraft Corporation, in Akron, Ohio. He is a member of Sigma Xi, Tau Beta Pi, Phi Kappa Phi, and Gamma Alpha.

❖

J. F. HULL

Joseph F. Hull was born in Montello, Wis., on August 25, 1921. He received the B.S. degree in electrical engineering from the University of Wisconsin in June, 1943. He joined the U. S. Army Enlisted Reserve Corps in 1942, but was placed on inactive status during the war in order that he might carry on research work at the General Electric Research Laboratory, under the sponsorship of the Office of Scientific Research and Development. From 1943 to October, 1945, he worked on the development of high-power continuous-wave magnetrons for radar countermeasures at the General Electric Company.

On October 3, 1945, Mr. Hull was called to active duty by the Army and was assigned directly to the Thermionics Branch of the Signal Corps Engineering Laboratories, Belmar, N. J., to carry on research in the field of microwaves. He was discharged from the Army on March 1, 1946, and has since been employed as a civilian research engineer by the Signal Corps. He is a member of Tau Beta Pi and Eta Kappa Nu.

DOUGLAS E. MODE

Douglas E. Mode (SM'46) was born on April 4, 1911, in Brandon, Manitoba, Canada. He was graduated from the University of Pennsylvania, Moore School of Electrical Engineering, with the degrees of B.S. in 1935, M.S. in 1937, and Ph.D. in 1947. He joined the engineering staff of the General Electric Co. in 1936, where he was engaged in the design and development of magnetic and electronic relaying devices.

In 1940 Dr. Mode became an instructor in electrical engineering at Lehigh University and was made an assistant professor in 1941, in which capacity he served until early 1944. On leave from Lehigh University, he joined the Columbia University Underwater Sound War Research Group at New London, Conn., later transferring to the Radiation Laboratory at MIT.

Returning from war work, Dr. Mode again took up teaching duties at Lehigh University, where he is now an associate professor of electrical engineering. He is a member of Eta Kappa Nu, Tau Beta Pi, and Sigma Xi.

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For a photograph and biography of HOWARD L. ANDREWS, see page 1132 of the September, 1948, issue of the PROCEEDINGS of the I.R.E.

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For a photograph and biography of R. E. LAPP, see page 1132 of the September, 1948, issue of the PROCEEDINGS OF THE I.R.E.

Contributors to Proceedings of the I.R.E.

A. W. RANDALS

Arthur W. Randals was born in St. Louis, Mo., on January 21, 1920. He received the B.S. degree in physics from Lincoln University in Missouri in 1941. In 1942 Mr. Randals received an appointment to the Signal Corps Engineering Laboratory at Camp vans, Belmar N. J. Since 1943 he has en with the Thermionics Branch, Vacuum-ube Development Section, at this Laboratory. At the present time he holds the osition of research physicist, and is engaged in research and development prob-ms of magnetrons.

Mr. Randals is also attending the graduate school of the Stevens Institute of Technology, where he is pursuing graduate study the field of physics.

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For a photograph and biography of D. NOE, see page 1003 of the August, 948, issue of the PROCEEDINGS OF THE R.E.

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For a photograph and biography of ERNARD M. OLIVER, see page 504 of the pril, 1948, issue of the PROCEEDINGS OF IE I.R.E.

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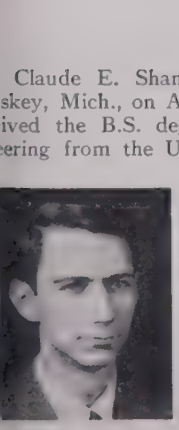
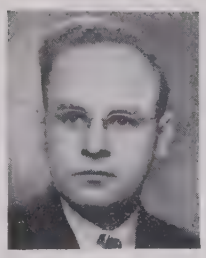


C. E. SHANNON

Claude E. Shannon was born in Peskey, Mich., on April 30, 1916. He received the B.S. degree in electrical engineering from the University of Michigan in 1936, and the degrees of S.M. in electrical engineering and Ph.D. in mathematics from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in 1940. In 1941 he was a National Research Fellow, and since then has been working at the Bell Telephone Laboratories.



GEORGE SINCLAIR

George Sinclair (A'37–SM'46) was born in Hamilton, Ontario, Canada, on November 5, 1912. He received the B.Sc. degree in electrical engineering in 1933 and the M.Sc. degree in 1935 from the University of Alberta, and the Ph.D. degree in 1946 from the Ohio State University. Dr. Sinclair was an instructor in electrical engineering at the University of Alberta for one year, and engineer for the Northern Broadcasting Corporation for two years.

From 1941 to 1947 Dr. Sinclair was a research associate in the department of electrical engineering of the Ohio State University, supervising the research program of the Antenna Laboratory. He is now an assistant professor of electrical engineering at the University of Toronto, and is also a consultant to the Ohio State University Antenna Laboratory.

❖

Philip T. Smith (A'38–SM'46) was born on September 16, 1902, in St. Paul, Minn. He received the B.A. degree from the University of Minnesota in 1927, majoring in physics. He then attended the same University as a teaching assistant in physics, receiving the Ph.D. degree in 1931. From 1931 to 1933 he was a Rockefeller Research Fellow at the University of Minnesota, and the following year, he was a National Research Fellow in physics at Princeton University. He was an instructor of physics at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology until 1937.

Dr. Smith joined the Research staff of the RCA Manufacturing Company at Harrison, N. J., remaining until 1942, when he transferred to RCA Laboratories Division at Princeton, N. J., as a research engineer working on uhf problems. He is a member of the American Physical Society, Sigma Xi, and Gamma Alpha.

PHILIP T. SMITH

A. M. SKELLETT

A. Melvin Skellett (M'44) was born in 1901 in St. Louis, Mo. He received the A.B. and M.S. degrees from Washington University in 1924 and 1927, respectively, and the Ph.D. degree from Princeton University in 1933. He was an assistant professor of physics at the University of Florida during 1927 and 1928, and from 1929 until 1944 he was employed by the Bell Telephone Laboratories as a member of the technical staff.

Dr. Skellett is vice-president in charge of research of the National Union Radio Corporation in Orange, N. J. He is also a consultant to the Research and Development Board in the Department of National Defense of the United States Government.

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For a photograph and biography of J. R. PIERCE, see page 1003 of the August, 1948, issue of the PROCEEDINGS OF THE I.R.E.

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For a photograph and biography of C. T. TAI, see page 504 of the April, 1948, issue of the PROCEEDINGS OF THE I.R.E.

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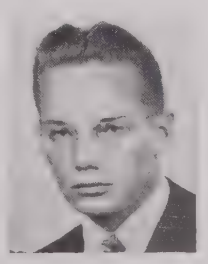
Howard M. Zeidler (M'45) was born in 1919 at Eudora, Kan. He received the B.S. degree from Kansas State College in 1941, and the S.M. degree from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in 1943. From 1943 to 1946, he was a research associate at the Radio Research Laboratory at Harvard University, a portion of that period being spent as a technical representative with the Army Air Forces in the Mediterranean Theatre of Operations.

Since 1946, Mr. Zeidler has been employed as an engineer at the Hewlett Packard Company in Palo Alto, Calif. He is a member of Sigma Xi Phi Kappa Phi, Sigma Tau, and Eta Kappa Nu.



H. M. ZEIDLER

Correspondence

Avenues of Improvement in Present-Day Television*

I have read Mr. Fink's paper[1] with great interest. I was particularly impressed with his discourse on "geometric distortion," for this problem has been of interest to us here for some years.

Practically speaking, let me point out that the reason for geometric distortion originating in camera equipment is due to the following:

1. *Ambient gradient* surrounding the components in circuits which are responsible for the generation and amplification of the sawtooth currents and potentials necessary in the scanning systems. Changes in temperature of the air surrounding components (particularly capacitors), in circuits where the "saws" are produced, result in a change in the electrical constants of these components during periods of operation, resulting in nonlinearity of the sawtooth wave forms. Even when so-called negative-temperature-coefficient components are used, for instance, the difficulty still persists. This has been proved here by checking ambient temperature gradient in critical scanning circuits against changes in the degree of linearity of sawtooth wave forms.

2. The failure of the industry, as was said, universally to adopt a technique such as that suggested six years ago by Duke in his paper.[2]

3. The failure of the industry to develop sawtooth-generating circuits of greater stability for application to commercial television apparatus. Such circuits can be greatly improved, and with little research.

In the last instance ((3) above), I would like to point out the work of H. S. Black of Bell Telephone Laboratories in the development of feedback circuits, some of which can be applied to stabilize "saw" generating circuits. The use of inverse feedback for this purpose has already been pointed out by Groves,[3] and a circuit which can be modified for use in a sawtooth-generating circuit has been developed.[4] In this system, the exponential charge of a capacitor (producing a sawtooth wave) is fed back in series with the input potential, the out-of-phase potential compensating for the nonlinear rise of the exponential capacitor discharge.

The linearization of electromagnetic deflection currents by means of negative feedback has also been accomplished by a number of workers.[5] In one feedback circuit, the negative feedback arrangement has been found to maintain the sawtooth current constant within 0.05 per cent.

In closing, let me say that the maintenance technicians at DuMont television Network stations religiously follow the problem of geometric distortion day by day in an effort to seek some improvement. However, with the circuits in use in this country today, ambient gradient in the equipment is such—particularly over long periods of operation—that "linearity," even though perfectly achieved before "program time," will not hold over long periods of operation. More stable circuits are needed.

I would suggest some work on the part of all the manufacturers toward applying inverse feedback to scanning potential generators and amplifiers. I think that herein will lie some hope of a successful solution to this embarrassing problem.

Our manufacturing organization is already applying the principles of inverse feedback to television equipment, and our new dual iconoscope film chain, in particular, makes use of such circuits in the deflection system. This equipment is just now coming off the production line.

SCOTT HELT
Chief Engineer
Allen B. DuMont Laboratories
New York, N. Y.

* Received by the Institute, July 9, 1948.

[1] D. G. Fink, "Avenues of improvement in present-day television," PROC. I.R.E., vol. 36, pp. 896–906; July, 1948.

[2] Vernon Duke, "A method for checking television scanning linearity," *RCA Rev.*, vol. 2, pp. 190–202; October, 1941.

[3] W. R. Groves, letter to *Wireless World*, vol. 43, p. 278; September 22, 1938.

[4] E. S. L. Beale and R. Stansfield, British Patent 453887.

[5] A. D. Blumlein, British Patent 479113; M. Bowman-Manifold and W. S. Perceval, British Patent 424221; E. L. C. White, British Patent 518378.

Cathode-Follower Oscillators*

Some recent papers have described cathode followers as oscillators.[1,2] Another interesting approach in analyzing this type of oscillator is to solve the loop equations o the equivalent circuit (Fig. 1.) for the gen eralized oscillator (Fig. 2) under condition of sustained oscillation. The relations be tween the various parameters can be ex pressed by the following determinanta equation:

$$\begin{vmatrix} \frac{r_p}{1+\mu}+Z_2 & -\left(Z_2+\frac{\mu}{1+\mu}Z_1\right) \\ -Z_2 & Z_1+Z_2+Z_3 \end{vmatrix} = 0,$$

or when expanded, as:

$$r_p(Z_1+Z_2+Z_3)+(1+\mu)Z_2Z_3+Z_1Z_2=0. \quad (1$$

This equation is the classical Barkhause equation, and demonstrates the importan fact that, independent of the point o grounding, the steady-state conditions fo oscillation are identical.

If, in the determinant, the following ap proximations are made:

$$\frac{r_p}{1+\mu}\cong\frac{1}{gm} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\mu}{1+\mu}\cong 1,$$

then (1) is simply:

$$\frac{Z_1+Z_2+Z_3}{gm}+Z_2Z_3=0.$$

It can be seen that, in addition to the cas having a capacitive Z_2 and Z_3, there is als a cathode-follower oscillator requiring in ductive components for these two impec ances. In general, Z_2 and Z_3 must be of sim lar reactive component to make an osci lator.

The cathode-follower oscillator can b made a crystal oscillator by replacing a inductive arm with a crystal. If the cathod is capacitive, then the crystal can be place from grid to ground, replacing Z_1; while, the cathode is inductive, the crystal can b placed from grid to cathode, replacing Z These two possibilities are cathode-follow versions of the Pierce and Miller cryst oscillators, with the plate grounded instea of the cathode. A 10-Mc Pierce cfo is show

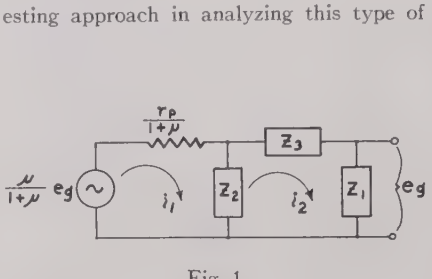


Fig. 1

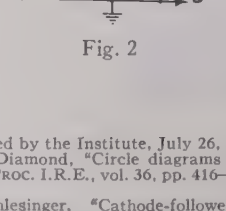


Fig. 2

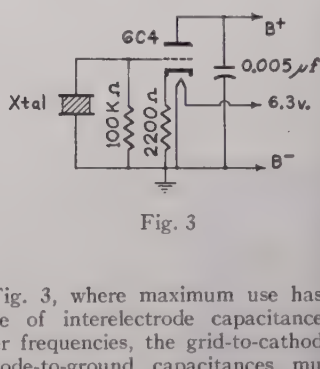


Fig. 3

in Fig. 3, where maximum use has bee made of interelectrode capacitances. A lower frequencies, the grid-to-cathode ar cathode-to-ground capacitances must b increased.

It can be seen that grounding the pla allows simpler circuit configurations.

L. ROSENTH
Rutgers Universi
New Brunswick, N.

* Received by the Institute, July 26, 1948.

[1] J. M. Diamond, "Circle diagrams for cathode followers," PROC. I.R.E., vol. 36, pp. 416–420; March, 1948.

[2] K. Schlesinger, "Cathode-follower circuits," PROC. I.R.E., vol. 33, pp. 843–855; December, 1945.

Institute News and Radio Notes

AIEE-IRE Conference on Electronic Instrumentation

At the AIEE-IRE Conference on Electronic Instrumentation in Nucleonics and Medicine, to be held at the Engineering Societies Building, 29 West 39 Street, New York, N. Y., over thirty outstanding papers on various aspects of the subject will be presented at three daily sessions.

On November 29, under W. A. Geohegan's leadership, Harry Grundfest will open the session with a paper on "Biological Requirements in Amplifiers," followed by "Present Practice in Biological Amplifier Design," by John P. Hervey. A group entitled "Biological Requirements in Recording Devices," will include "Cathode-Ray Photography," by Charles M. Berry; "The Electrocardiograph," by John L. Nickerson; "The Electroencephalograph," by Charles H. Richards, and "Miscellaneous Recorders," by John R. Pappenheimer. The session will conclude with "Engineering Aspects in Biological Recorder Design," by J. R. Gilford.

The second session, on November 30, with G. W. Dunlap as chairman, will offer the following papers: "An Introduction to Nucleonics Instrumentation," by A. Wahl; "Biological Requirements for Radioactive-Isotope Measurements," by C. A. Tobias, Jr., and a discussion of the latter by J. Marinelli; "Geiger Counters," by H. Friedman; "Thin-Window Beta Counters," by F. C. Henriques, Jr.; "Autoradiographic Technique," by George A. Boyd; "Stable Isotope Measurement," by David Rittenberg; "The Biological Effects of Radiation and Health Protection," by G. Failla; and "Health-Protection Instrumentation," by J. R. Shonka.

The final session, on December 1, will be headed by H. H. Goldsmith. S. A. Korff will start the session with a paper on "Proportional Counters, including Alpha and Neutron," followed by "Neutron Detection," by H. L. Anderson; "Ionization Chambers," by J. A. Victoreen; "Ionization-Chamber Measurements," by E. W. Hallou; "Stabilized High-Voltage Supply for Counters and Chambers," by W. A. Higginbotham; "Electron-Multiplier Counters," by P. S. Johnson; "Crystal Counters" by Robert Hofstadter; "Electronic Counting Techniques," by Matthew Sands; and "Photographic Emulsion," by J. Spence. Additional invited papers may also be presented.

National Electronics Conference in November

The National Electronics Conference, to be held on November 4, 5, and 6, 1948, at the Edgewater Beach Hotel in Chicago, will consist of fifteen sessions, at which over sixty papers will be presented. At the first day's luncheon meeting, Anton J. Carlson will speak on "Science, Industry, and the Future Man." Donald J. Fink, editor of *Electronics* magazine, will speak at the second day's luncheon on "The Decline and Fall of the Free Electron." A banquet will be held the evening of the first day for engineers and their families, at which there will be a floor show and dancing.

Calendar of COMING EVENTS

National Electronics Conference, Chicago, Nov. 4–6, 1948.

Electronic Technicians' Town Meeting, Boston, Nov. 15–17

Technical Symposium for Electronic Engineers in Geophysics, Houston, Tex.; Nov. 22 (tent.)

American Physical Society Meeting, Chicago, Nov. 26–27

IRE-RMA Rochester Fall Meeting, Rochester, N. Y., Nov. 8–10

RMA Town Meeting, Boston, Mass., Nov. 15–17

AIEE-IRE Conference on Electronic Instrumentation, New York City, Nov. 29–Dec. 1

1948 Southwestern IRE Conference, Dallas, Tex., Dec. 10–11

AIEE Symposium High-Frequency Measurements, Washington, D. C., Jan. 10–12

American Physical Society Meeting, New York City, Jan. 27–29, 1949

March 7–10, 1949 IRE National Convention, New York City

Southwestern IRE Conference Scheduled for December

Prompted by the postwar increase in the scope and volume of electronic activity in the Southwest, particularly in the field of oil exploration, the Dallas-Fort Worth Section of the IRE is taking a step forward to direct attention toward an electronic industrial potential with capable manpower, and to bring inspiration and new ideas to a central point within reach of the engineers of the geographically large Southwest. In 1947, the Fort Worth Section alone embraced 880,000 square miles.

Dedicated to this purpose, the Southwestern IRE Conference will be held at the Baker Hotel, Dallas, Tex., on December 10 and 11, 1948. Following the registration of guests from 8:30 to 10:00 A.M. on Friday, December 10, papers in the fields of radio, television, and geophysics will be presented at the technical sessions, and manufacturers' exhibits of various electronic equipment will be on display both days of the conference.

Field trips to points of technical interest, including the Southwest's first and recently completed television station WBAP-TV at Fort Worth, and Dallas' first frequency-modulation station, WFFA-FM, will supplement the technical sessions, exhibits, and entertainment. All radio stations and industrial laboratories, as well as the Southern Methodist University, have granted special privileges to visiting IRE members. A ladies' program for the engineers' wives and families has also been arranged, including a special visit to the world-famous Neiman-Marcus Department Store.

Further information concerning the conference may be obtained from A. S. LeVelle, 810 Telephone Building, Dallas 2, Tex.

Symposia in Geophysics for Electronic Engineers

A series of technical symposia in geophysics of interest to electronic engineers is being planned for presentation in Houston, Tex., during the winter months. The symposia are being conducted as a joint project of the IRE, the AIEE, and the Society of Exploration Geophysicists. The primary purpose of these meetings is to bring together for group study and discussions the electronic specialists scattered throughout the various geophysical laboratories of the petroleum industry. The first meeting is tentatively scheduled for November 22.

Further details may be secured from W. M. Rust, Jr., of the Humble Oil and Refining Co., Houston, Tex., or from Lawrence G. Cowles, Superior Oil Co., Bellaire, Tex.

Industrial Engineering Notes[1]

German Electronic Research Described in New Reports

Two new OTS reports, PB 81566, "German Wartime Research and Development in Klystrons" ($4, photostat; $1.75, microfilm), and PB 81565, "German Wartime Crystal-Research and Manufacturing Techniques" ($3, photostat; $1.50, microfilm) may be purchased from the Library of Congress, Photoduplication Service, Publication Board Project, Washington 25, D. C. Check or money order should be made payable to the Librarian of Congress.

New NSRB Appointments

Arthur M. Hill, chairman of the National Security Resources Board, announced that Reginald E. Gilmor, a manufacturer of scientific apparatus, has been appointed vice-chairman to supervise the work of the

[1] The data on which these NOTES are based were selected, by permission from "Industry Reports," issues of August 13, 20, and 27, and September 3 and 10, published by the Radio Manufacturers' Association, whose helpful attitude in this matter is hereby gladly acknowledged.

Board's Mobilization Planning Staff; and that Gayle W. Arnold will head the Board's Division of Plant Dispersion. Mr. Gilmor, a former president of the Sperry Gyroscope Co., recently returned from Greece, where he directed the industry division of the American Mission. Mr. Arnold has served as industrial development manager of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Co., and during the war was special consultant to the U. S. Army Chief of Ordnance on safety and security and plant location problems.

Signal Corps Activities

More than thirty-one million dollars in **surplus electronic equipment** has been made available to American educational institutions since the beginning of 1947 through the Signal Corps donation program. Requests for various types of equipment came from 2807 institutions. The Signal Corps was able to supply 13,655 items, with radio and radar sets comprising the bulk of the equipment. . . . In order to meet **expanding training requirements,** the Signal Corps will have to recall 471 reserve officers, who may, however, be recalled to extended active duty only with their consent.

NIC Hopes to Solve Radio Problems

The National Inventors Council issued a list of forty items, including a number of radio problems, which are among the technical problems affecting defense to which the Council hopes American inventors will submit solutions. Compiled by the Council in co-operation with the Armed Services, the list includes a statement of each problem together with approaches made to date, and their deficiencies or defects. Copies of the list ("Technical Problems Affecting National Defense," NIC List 1948-1) may be obtained without charge from the Council, Department of Commerce, Washington 25, D. C.

Recent FCC Rulings

The FCC announced a proposed **revision of its multiple ownership rules** which would limit common ownership or control by one person or corporation to not more than seven standard broadcast stations. The new rule would also forbid any person or corporation from serving as a stockolder, officer, or director of more than 14 AM stations . . . Class II experimental construction permits, subject to final determination of proposed FCC rules and allocations for this class of radio service, were granted to two oil exploration companies, the Seismograph Service Corp., and the Frost Geophysical Corp., both of Tulsa, Okla., authorizing them to conduct experiments for a year in the Gulf of Mexico with **two new radiolocation systems**—Lorac and Raydist, respectively. The operating characteristics of the two systems differ to some extent, but are similar in that both involve phase-measuring techniques. FCC Commissioner Sterling pointed out that the radiolocation systems now available, including shoran, radar, and other high-frequency systems, do not fulfill the operational requirements of exploration now being undertaken. The frequency location requirements of the two new systems raise a number of questions which involve present allocations and international treaties, but the FCC will institute a rule-making proceeding looking toward the allocation of 8 kc within the 200- to 2050-kc band to this radiolocation service. A similar proceeding will be instituted with respect to allocating three frequencies in the 29-Mc band.

Television Developments Here and Abroad

Ninety construction permits for new television outlets have been authorized and 303 applications filed. Westinghouse Radio Stations, Inc., filed an application to operate a commercial stratovision television broadcasting station in the Pittsburgh area. The application seeks Channel 8 for an airborne television station to operate at a point about 30 miles west of Pittsburgh. The stratovision plane is to be operated in conjunction with a ground station to be established at KDKA, Pittsburgh, for which a separate application has been filed.

Television receiver shipments by RMA member-companies were fifty per cent greater during the second quarter of 1948 than in the first quarter, and brought total postwar shipments for the first half of 1948 to 425,000, the total half-year production being 259,591. Shipments continued to lag behind production figures, which total 463,943 since the war and 278,896 during the first six months of 1948. The New York-Newark area remains the leader in the number of television sets received, with Philadelphia, Chicago, Los Angeles, Boston, Washington, D. C., and Baltimore following.

In Britain, the television system was frozen indefinitely in order to protect nearly 60,000 receiving sets from obsolescence. Prolonged research, requiring several years, will be necessary before substantial improvements, possibly including color, can be realized in practice; the London television station, therefore, will continue to operate for a number of years on the 405-line system, and the same system is being adopted for the Midlands station and is proposed for other British stations.

Czechoslovakia's first television station went on the air in May with an operating schedule of three hours daily. At present its operations are of technical interest only, as there are but five television sets in the country. However, 20 additional sets are to be installed at public places in Prague in the near future.

RMA Celebrates "Silver Anniversary"

A gala radio industry celebration is planned in Chicago during the week of May 15, 1949, combining the twenty-fifth RMA "Silver Anniversary" convention and the annual Radio Parts Industry Trade Show. The Stevens Hotel has been virtually taken over for the celebration of RMA's founding in 1924 and the annual Parts Trade Show, with a "Silver Anniversary" banquet planned for Thursday evening, May 19, in the hotel's grand ballroom.

FM Developments

At present 644 FM outlets are operatin on the air, including 22 noncommercial sta tions. Conditional grants number 92, con struction permits 706, and 95 application are pending. New stations have recentl gone on the air in the following states:

Calif., Bakersfield (KMAR), Los An geles (KFMV-FM), Merced (KUME) Redding (KVRE), and San Francisc (KDFC); *Conn.*, New Haven (WAVZ-FM) *D. C.*, Washington (WQQW-FM); *Fla.* Miami (WGBI-FM); *Iowa*, Davenpor (WOC-FM); *Kan.*, Wichita (KFH-FM) *Ky.*, Bowling Green (WBON); *Mich.* Jackson (WJBM-FM); *Mo.*, Kansas Cit (WHB-FM), St. Louis, and Springfiel (KTTS-FM); *N. C.*, Henderson (WHNC FM) and Redisville (WREV); *N. Y.* Ogdensburg (WSLB-FM) and Troy (WFLY); *Ohio*, Cincinnati (WSAI-FM) an Lima (WLOK-FM); *Ore.*, Portland (KOIN FM); *Pa.*, DuBois (WCEB-FM); *S. C.* Greenville (WESC-FM); *Tenn.*, Johnson City (WJHL-FM); *Tex.*, Belton (KHMB) *Va.*, Richmond (WRUB, WRNL-FM, an WLEE-FM); *W. Va.*, Oak Hill (WOAY FM); *Wis.*, Green Bay (WTAQ-FM), Madi son (WFOW), Racine (WRJN-FM), an Wausau (WSAU).

The FCC made final its proposed rule providing for low-power FM stations in the noncommercial educational broadcasting service. This amendment will enable many educational institutions which might not be able to afford high-powered stations to enter the noncommercial educational FM broadcast field.

July Radio Production Drops

In July, 1948, radio receiver production dropped to 627,349 for the lowest monthly output since February, 1946. The previous month's production was 1,049,517 and production in the same month of the year before was 1,155,456. This represents the first time that set production by RMA member companies fell below a million-a-month since May, 1946. RMA manufacturers produced 74,988 FM-AM sets during July, as compared with 90,414 in the previous month of June and with 70,649 in July, 1947. Production of automobile and portable radios also decreased sharply.

At the same time, July, 1948, collections of the ten per cent excise tax on radios and phonographs and certain of their components dropped more than two million dollars below the July, 1947, total, and fell about one-half million dollars under collections in June, 1948. Collections in July totalled $4,060,785.34, as compared with $6,450,451.19 in July of the previous year and $4,606,382.67 this June.

Canadian Radio Sales Dropping

Sales of radio receiving sets by Canadian producers during the first five months of 1948 totalled 178,843 units valued at $16,725,846, as against 318,408 units valued at $20,484,088 in the same five months of 1947. From January to May, 1948, 150 sets valued at $170,375 were imported and 9266 units valued at $355,830 were exported

Sections

Chairman		Secretary
V. A. Edson eorgia School of Tech. tlanta, Ga.	ATLANTA October 15	M. S. Alexander 2289 Memorial Dr., S.E. Atlanta, Ga.
	BALTIMORE	J. W. Hammond 4 Alabama Court Baltimore 28, Md.
ohn Petkovsek 015 Ave. E eaumont, Texas	BEAUMONT—PORT ARTHUR	C. E. Laughlin 1292 Liberty Beaumont, Texas
. W. Hickman ruft Laboratory arvard University ambridge, Mass.	BOSTON	A. F. Coleman Mass. Inst. of Technology 77 Massachusetts Ave. Cambridge, Mass.
. E. Van Spankeren an Martin 379 uenos Aires, Arg.	BUENOS AIRES	A. C. Cambre San Martin 379 Buenos Aires, Arg.
. F. Myers 49 Linwood Ave. uffalo 9, N. Y.	BUFFALO-NIAGARA October 20	R. F. Blinzler 558 Crescent Ave. Buffalo 14, N. Y.
. P. Hixenbaugh adio Station WMT edar Rapids, Iowa	CEDAR RAPIDS	W. W. Farley Collins Radio Co. Cedar Rapids, Iowa
. W. Jarvis 058 W. Fullerton Ave. hicago 39, Ill.	CHICAGO October 15	Kipling Adams General Radio Co. 920 S. Michigan Ave. Chicago 5, Ill.
. K. Gieringer 016 Lischer Ave. incinnati, Ohio	CINCINNATI October 19	F. W. King RR 9 Box 263 College Hill Cincinnati 24, Ohio
. B. Schramm 403 Channing Way leveland 18, Ohio	CLEVELAND October 28	J. B. Epperson Box 228 Berea, Ohio
Varren Bauer 76 Crestview Rd. olumbus 2, Ohio	COLUMBUS November 12	George Mueller Electrical Eng. Dept. Ohio State University Columbus, Ohio
. E. Warner ircraft Electronics Assoc. 031 New Britain Ave. lartford 10, Conn.	CONNECTICUT VALLEY October 21	H. L. Krauss Dunham Laboratory Yale University New Haven, Conn.
. G. Rountree 333 South Western Blvd. allas 5, Texas	DALLAS-FT. WORTH	J. H. Homsy Box 5238 Dallas, Texas
eorge Rappaport 32 East Court larshman Homes ayton 3, Ohio	DAYTON October 21	C. J. Marshall 1 Twain Place Dayton 10, Ohio
. F. Quentin adio Station KRNT es Moines 4, Iowa	DES MOINES-AMES	F. E. Bartlett Radio Station KSO Old Colony Bldg. Des Moines 9, Iowa
. Friedenthal 396 Oregon etroit 4, Mich.	DETROIT October 15	N. C. Fisk 3005 W. Chicago Ave. Detroit 6, Mich.
. F. Kahl ylvania Electric Products mporium, Pa.	EMPORIUM	R. W. Slinkman Sylvania Electric Products Emporium, Pa.
V. H. Carter 309 Marshall Ave. ouston 6, Texas	HOUSTON	J. C. Robinson 1422 San Jacinto St. Houston 2, Texas
. E. McCormick 466 Carrollton Ave. ndianapolis, Ind.	INDIANAPOLIS	Eugene Pulliam 931 N. Parker Ave. Indianapolis, Ind.
arl Troeglen CMO Broadcasting Co. ommerce Bldg. ansas City 6, Mo.	KANSAS CITY	Mrs. G. L. Curtis 6005 El Monte Mission, Kan.
. W. Wilton 1 Carling St. ondon, Ont., Canada	LONDON, ONTARIO	G. H. Hadden 35 Becher St. London, Ont., Canada
Valter Kenworth 427 Lafayette St. an Gabriel, Calif.	LOS ANGELES October 19	R. A. Monfort L. A. Times 202 W. First St. Los Angeles 12, Calif.

Chairman		Secretary
O. W. Towner Radio Station WHAS Third & Liberty Louisville, Ky.	LOUISVILLE	D. C. Summerford Radio Station WKLO Henry Clay Hotel Louisville, Ky.
F. J. Van Zeeland Milwaukee School of Eng. 1020 N. Broadway Milwaukee, Wis.	MILWAUKEE	H. F. Loeffler Wisconsin Telephone Co. 722 N. Broadway Milwaukee 1, Wis.
K. R. Patrick RCA Victor Div. 1001 Lenoir St. Montreal, Canada	MONTREAL, QUEBEC October 13	S. F. Knights Canadian Marconi Co. P.O. Box 1690 Montreal, P. Q., Canada
L. A. Hopkins, Jr. 1711 17th Loop Sandia Base Branch Albuquerque, N. M.	NEW MEXICO	T. S. Church 637 La Vega Rd. Albuquerque, N. M.
J. W. McRae Bell Telephone Labs. Murray Hill, N. J.	NEW YORK November 3	R. D. Chipp DuMont Telev. Lab. 515 Madison Ave. New York, N. Y.
C. G. Brennecke Dept. of Electrical Eng. North Carolina State College Raleigh, N. C.	NORTH CAROLINA-VIRGINIA	C. M. Smith Radio Station WMIT Winston-Salem, N. C.
W. L. Haney 117 Bourque St. Hull, P. Q.	OTTAWA, ONTARIO October 21	G. A. Davis 78 Holland Ave. Ottawa, Canada
A. N. Curtiss Radio Corp. of America Camden, N. J.	PHILADELPHIA November 4	C. A. Gunther Radio Corp. of America Front & Cooper Sts. Camden, N. J.
M. A. Schultz 635 Cascade Rd. Forest Hills Borough Pittsburgh, Pa.	PITTSBURGH November 8	E. W. Marlowe Union Switch & Sig. Co. Swissvale P.O. Pittsburgh 18, Pa.
O. A. Steele 1506 S.W. Montgomery St. Portland 1, Ore.	PORTLAND	F. E. Miller 3122 S.E. 73 Ave. Portland 6, Ore.
A. V. Bedford RCA Laboratories Princeton, N. J.	PRINCETON	L. J. Giacoletto 9 Villa Pl. Eatontown, N. J.
K. J. Gardner 111 East Ave. Rochester 4, N. Y.	ROCHESTER October 21	Gerrard Mountjoy Stromberg-Carlson Co. 100 Carlton Rd. Rochester, N. Y.
E. S. Naschke 1073-57 St. Sacramento 16, Calif.	SACRAMENTO	W. F. Koch 1340 33rd St. Sacramento 14, Calif.
G. M. Cummings 7200 Delta Ave. Richmond Height 17, Mo.	ST. LOUIS	C. E. Harrison 818 S. Kings Highway Blvd. St. Louis 10, Mo.
C. L. Jeffers Radio Station WOAI 1031 Navarro St. San Antonio, Texas	SAN ANTONIO	H. G. Campbell 233 Lotus Ave. San Antonio 3, Texas
C. N. Tirrell U. S. Navy Electronics Lab. San Diego 52, Calif.	SAN DIEGO November 2	S. H. Sessions U. S. Navy Electronics Lab. San Diego 52, Calif.
F. R. Brace 955 Jones St. San Francisco 9, Calif.	SAN FRANCISCO	R. A. Isberg Radio Station KRON 901 Mission St. San Francisco 19, Calif.
W. R. Hill University of Washington Seattle 5, Wash.	SEATTLE November 11	W. R. Triplett 3840—44 Ave. S.W. Seattle 6, Wash.
F. M. Deerhake 600 Oakwood St. Fayetteville, N. Y.	SYRACUSE	S. E. Clements Dept. of Electrical Eng. Syracuse University Syracuse 10, N. Y.
A. R. Bitter 4292 Monroe St. Toledo 6, Ohio	TOLEDO	J. K. Beins 435 Kenilworth Ave. Toledo 10, Ohio

Sections

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C. J. Bridgland 266 S. Kingsway Toronto, Ont., Canada	TORONTO, ONTARIO	T. I. Millen 289 Runnymede Rd. Toronto 9, Ont., Canada
D. A. Murray Fed. Comm. Comm. 208 Uptown P.O. & Federal Cts. Bldg. Saint Paul, Minn.	TWIN CITIES	C. I. Rice Northwest Airlines, Inc. Holman Field Saint Paul 1, Minn.
G. P. Adair 1833 "M" St. N.W. Washington, D. C.	WASHINGTON	H. W. Wells Dept. of Terrestrial Magnetism Carnegie Inst. of Washington Washington, D. C.
J. C. Starks Box 307 Sunbury, Pa.	WILLIAMSPORT	R. G. Petts Sylvania Electric Products, Inc. 1004 Cherry St. Montoursville, Pa.

SUBSECTIONS

Chairman		Secretary
H. R. Hegbar 2145 12th St. Cuyahoga Falls, Ohio	AKRON (Cleveland Subsection)	H. G. Shively 736 Garfield St. Akron, Ohio
J. C. Ferguson Farnsworth Television & Radio Co. 3700 E. Pontiac St. Fort Wayne, Ind.	FORT WAYNE (Chicago Subsection)	S. J. Harris Farnsworth Television and Radio Co. 3702 E. Pontiac Fort Wayne 1, Ind.
E. Olson 162 Haddon Ave., N Hamilton, Ont., Canada	HAMILTON (Toronto Subsection)	E. Ruse 195 Ferguson Ave., S. Hamilton, Ont., Canada
A. M. Glover RCA Victor Div. Lancaster, Pa.	LANCASTER (Philadelphia Subsection)	C. E. Burnett RCA Victor Div. Lancaster, Pa.
H. A. Wheeler Wheeler Laboratories 259–09 Northern Blvd. Great Neck, L. I., N. Y.	LONG ISLAND (New York Subsection)	M. Lebenbaum† Airborne Inst. Lab. 160 Old Country Rd. Box 111 Mineola, L. I., N. Y.
L. E. Hunt Bell Telephone Labs. Deal, N. J.	MONMOUTH (New York Subsection)	G. E. Reynolds, Jr. Electronics Associates, Inc. Long Branch, N. J.
J. B. Minter Box 1 Boonton, N. J.	NORTHERN N. J. (New York Subsection)	A. W. Parkes, Jr. 47 Cobb Rd. Mountain Lakes, N. J.
A. R. Kahn Electro-Voice, Inc. Buchanan, Mich.	SOUTH BEND (Chicago Subsection) October 21	A. M. Wiggins Electro-Voice, Inc. Buchanan, Mich.
R. M. Wainwright Elec. Eng. Department University of Illinois Urbana, Illinois	URBANA (Chicago Subsection)	M. H. Crothers Elec. Eng. Department University of Illinois Urbana, Illinois
S. S. Stevens Trans Canada Airlines Box 2973 Winnipeg, Manit., Canada	WINNIPEG (Toronto Subsection)	S. G. L. Horner Hudson's Bay Co. Brandon Ave. Winnipeg, Manit., Canada

Books

Microwave Magnetrons, edited by George B. Collins.

Published (1948) by the McGraw-Hill Book Co., 330 W. 42 St., New York 18, N. Y. 796 pages, 10-page index, xviii pages. 366 figures. 6¼×9¼. $9.00.

The publication of this book on magnetrons makes available, for the first time, important material derived from work performed on magnetrons at the Columbia and MIT Radiation Laboratories, and industrial laboratories associated with them. Its impact upon the field of magnetron development and design will be great.

That one book should be devoted to a single microwave component is not surprising when it is considered that the magnetron is the heart of microwave radar, which was such an important wartime development. Nor is it surprising that the book is limited to a discussion of the cavity-type traveling-wave magnetron, since nearly all the work of the Radiation Laboratory Magnetron Section was performed on this highly successful type of tube.

Although limited in subject material, the scope of the book is nonetheless ambitious. In addition to covering much of the material from both theoretical and design aspects, a considerable portion of the book is devoted to the actual mechanical construction of microwave magnetrons. Hence, the theorist, the development and design engineer, and even the technician, can find much of interest.

The book begins with a forty-page introduction, invaluable to a novice in the field, and is then divided into five major parts: "Resonant Systems," "Analysis of Operation," "Design," "Tuning and Stabilization," and "Practice."

"Resonant Systems" deals with the unstrapped resonant system, the "rising-sun" system, the strapped system, and output circuits. Field theory is used very successfully for analysis of the mode spectra of the unstrapped and the "rising-sun" magnetrons. The network theory used for analysis of the strapped magnetron is of especial importance, since network theory will undoubtedly be used increasingly in the analysis of more complex magnetrons than those covered by this book. One regrets, however, that Walker did not also include a less profound network analysis, since a simplified network analysis gives results satisfactory for many purposes and would be useful to many engineers who would not be attracted to the more complete treatment.

The second part, entitled "Analysis of Operation," presents first a review of the attack that has been made on the problem of the interaction of the electrons and the electromagnetic field. No complete solution to this problem is given, but there is much material of importance to one desiring to work on this problem. Walker sets up the fundamental equations of field theory and the equations of motion of a charged particle. The powerful Lagrange and Hamiltonian methods are used, and the work is carried through in both relativistic and nonrelativistic form. Some of the known laws, such as Hull's cutoff relation and the Hartree voltage relation, are derived. The fundamental steady states, such as the single stream and multiple-stream case, are treated. Walker gives an illuminating treatment of the Brillouin steady-state, the Bunemann small-amplitude theory, and the self-consistent field attack. Both the successes and shortcomings of the theories are carefully pointed out. Included in this section, also, are treatments by Rieke of the magnetron as a circuit element, of the transient behavior of the magnetron, and of noise. The first and second of these subjects are of interest to the equipment engineer desiring to understand the behavior of a magnetron as a circuit element. The section on noise is barely an introduction to an involved, but very important, subject.

The section on design, together with Part V on practice, is chiefly of interest to those actually designing and building magnetrons. Cathode design, dimensioning for desired

vavelength, correct Q adjustment, scaling, mitations and ratings, test equipment, soldering techniques, and chemical processing, re representative of what may be found in hese sections. Included are discussions and lustrations of several typical magnetrons.

Part IV deals with "Tuning and Stabiliation of Magnetrons." The sections on tunng by W. V. Smith include both mechanical nd electronic tuning, both of great imporance in future development in both cw and ulsed magnetrons.

The book shows considerable repetition nd difference in style, which is undoubtedly he result of the manner in which it was put ogether. In all, there are eleven contributng authors. Also, there is material from ther sources included without either perission or reference.

As a treatise on microwave magnetrons, he book is not entirely complete. It does not nclude the interdigital and other types, and t is not completely up-to-date. Moreover, he authors have refrained from giving credit o some of the major developers of magneron design and production.

On the whole, the over-all fine treatment f the subject matter in this book, in addiion to the fact that it is a book in a very pecialized field, will certainly make it the tandard reference text for some time to ome.

J. Ernest Smith
Raytheon Manufacturing Co.
Waltham, Mass.

The Principles and Practice of Wave Guides, by L. G. H. Huxley.

Published (1948) by the Macmillan Co., 60 Fifth ve., New York, N. Y. 325 pages, 2-page index, 148 gures. 5¼×8¼. $4.75.

This book, whose more complete title is 'A Survey of the Principles and Practices of Vave Guides," is an excellent textbook. It vill be found valuable by engineers, stulents, and teachers whose interest in microvaves may cover a rather large range. With ll the wartime analyses, experiments, and pparatus design, a complete story of the heory and practice of microwave circuitry vould have to consist of many volumes. A lesign or research engineer must expect from ime to time to consult almost every aspect f the theory and data, since his physical pparatus may comprise a complexity of dis-ontinuous waveguides. Ultimately, as with ow-frequency circuit technique, what the ngineer will want is a good treatise on the undamentals of the art, on the basis of which he formulas and experimental set-ups are btained, and then a large and clear handook giving the needed information for the arious conceivable wave-guiding system omponents. In the present text, the author as done a good job of surveying both asects of the field.

To the reader who seeks a better general mpression of waveguide technique, this ook will provide good physical pictures and lear discussions free from long and difficult nathematical derivations. The practical deigner interested in applying the various echniques of the art will appreciate the nany illustrations and short discussions of ractical points. A good bit of quantitative information is presented, so that the designer will find this book a convenient reference for many things that would be more difficult to find in the larger, more detailed texts that are now becoming available or that may be expected in the future.

Of course, the author cannot in only 325 pages describe, even briefly, every one of the important characteristics of waveguides and techniques of application. However, it is difficult to imagine someone making a much better choice of topics than he has done with a survey as the objective. There are some mistakes, but on the whole the book is more free of them than the average text. An example is the discussion on page 36 in which the most important higher-order wave in a coaxial line, the one that gives considerable trouble in practice, is overlooked, and the statement is made that no such higher-order waves are excited unless the wavelength of the principle wave is reduced until it is of the order of the distance between inner and outer conductors. This is, of course, not correct, since the most easily excited wave is one that is analogous to the TE_{10} wave of a rectangular guide. This wave will propagate in a coaxial line if the average circumference of inner and outer conductors is about equal to the wavelength.

The final chapter is a treatment of selected topics in a more mathematical fashion. In most texts such a treatment would precede the main discussion. The author has chosen not to do so here, because the final chapter is intended only for those readers who will be interested in additional theoretical background and proofs for the material presented earlier.

Simon Ramo
Hughes Aircraft Co.
Culver City, Calif.

Vacuum Tubes, by Karl R. Spangenberg.

Published (1948) by the McGraw-Hill Book Co., 330 W. 42 St., New York 18, N. Y. 848 pages, 12-page index, xvii pages, 423 figures. 6¼×9¼. $7.50.

"Vacuum Tubes" is the first book in the "Electrical and Electronic Engineering Series" being published by McGraw-Hill, with F. E. Terman as consulting editor. It has grown out of a course in vacuum-tube design given for many years at Stanford University to senior and graduate students in electrical engineering and physics.

With certain exceptions the material presented tends to be mathematical or theoretical, rather than descriptive. Although the use of complex notation is circumvented in the early part of the book, it does become standard throughout the remainder. A knowledge of calculus and complex variables is adequate for a general understanding of the material presented, but a very much more thorough knowledge of mathematics is required to carry through some of the indicated derivations. References to commercial practices or specific commercial tubes are sparse. As the author has pointed out, the subject of vacuum tubes is so vast that much detail has been omitted and he has confined his attention almost exclusively to those phenomena taking place *within* vacuum tubes.

An assessment of the book's contents may be made in the form of a tabulation:

	Chapters	*Pages*	*%*
Introductory material	3	22	3
Basic information	3	102	13
Space-charge-control tubes (ordinary tubes)	6	225	27
Noise	1	30	4
Cathode-ray tubes	3	147	18
Microwave tubes	2	141	18
Special and photo tubes	2	72	9
Evacuation	1	64	8

The introductory chapters, although much more elementary than the remainder of the text, are not out of proportion. The basic information following is in general well but succinctly presented, and the portion on determination of potential fields is good. However, the indicated proof of the analogy between the elastic membrane model and the solution of Poisson's equation in two dimensions does invoke Euler's equations at a place in the text in which vector notation is just being introduced. This, and the use of a conformal transformation in an illustration some 13 pages before this technique is discussed, may present some difficulties to less experienced readers.

The portion of the book dealing with the theory of space-charge control as used in ordinary tubes is most extensive and is particularly outstanding. Here much of the widely spread and controversial literature on the subject is brought together and unified. It is recognized that equations for the performance of grid-type tubes are approximations at best, which permit of wide differences of opinion as to validity and applicability. The discussion of amplification factor is very complete, including equations for particularly closely spaced electrodes.

The chapters on electric and magnetic lenses are principally theoretical, containing derivations of expressions for the cardinal points of lenses from first-order or paraxial-ray theory. Curves relating the physical dimensions of various forms of electric lenses to their optical characteristics are given and described. Types of aberrations are described, although the equation of motion is not solved for the higher-order terms which produce them.

In keeping with the tone of the book, the chapter on cathode-ray tubes contains little information on the various types of such tubes now available. A good share of the chapter is devoted to mathematical discussions of the maximum current which can be passed through a cylinder and of the Pierce gun.

Of the part of the book dealing with microwave tubes, the chapter on klystrons is the more complete, partly because the theory is better understood, and partly because the author has enjoyed extensive and close association with klystron development. The chapter on magnetrons is less complete, and, while reviewing the theoretical literature and describing the customary performance characteristics, does not provide a basis for magnetron design.

The chapters on noise, phototubes, and special tubes appear to have been added for sake of completeness. The first presents the basic concepts of various types of statistical tube noise, while the latter two are chiefly descriptive in nature. The photocell theory given is rather brief and is somewhat out of date, Fowler's method of determining work function not being mentioned.

In a book which so strongly stresses the mathematical approach, the final chapter on high-vacuum practice is perhaps a bit incongruous. As a brief review of the subject, it is quite well done, although the references, particularly the general references, are somewhat old.

The book contains little repetition. Topics follow a very logical sequence, particularly for teaching. The documentation, though not complete, cites many of the important references.

In an 850-page volume on a subject so new and diversified as electron tubes, especially when it is a first edition, it is to be expected that errors will occur. Professor Spangenberg's book contains no more than its just share, most of which may be ascribed to a lack of opportunity on his part to become aware of the many problems associated with commercial products. Several examples may be cited.

The effect of contact potential upon tube operation is dismissed as being insignificant. In describing the processing of thoriated tungsten filaments, it is stated that the resistance decreases, rather than increases, with carburization. Errors of similar nature occur on page 426 concerning the reason for preferring magnetic scan for some television cathode-ray tubes; on page 480, concerning the frequency limitations imposed by single-ended construction of receiving tubes; and on page 735, where the orthicon television pickup tube described is not the tube commonly known by this name.

Despite such errors, however, it is the reviewer's opinion that the book meets the needs of the class of reader for which it was intended, and constitutes an excellent reference volume for the radio engineer.

R. M. Bowie
Sylvania Electric Products Inc.
Flushing, L. I., N. Y.

Pulse Generators, edited by G. N. Glasoe and Jean V. Lebacqz.

Published (1948) by the McGraw-Hill Book Co., 330 W. 42 St., New York 18, N. Y. 722 pages, 6-page list of symbols, 13-page index, xiv pages. 502 figures. 6¼×9¼. $9.00.

This book is Volume 5 of the Radiation Laboratory Series of twenty-eight volumes devoted to radar and related techniques. The title, "Pulse Generators," is somewhat misleading, for the reader might expect a discussion of the many types of oscillators used for the generation of pulses; whereas the book might be more aptly titled, "Magnetron Modulators," for this is the true subject of the book. The various types of pulse generators used with magnetrons, and the associated components of such generators, are presented in detail. Pulse powers from 100 watts to 20 megawatts with pulse durations from 0.03 to 10 microseconds are considered. Pulse power shape, power transfer, efficiency, and impedance transformation are discussed. This material is covered in three major parts of the book and an appendix. Part One takes up the subject of "The Hard Tube Pulser," a pulse generator in which a vacuum tube (hard tube) is used as a switch to partially discharge the energy of a storage device into the magnetron load. Part Two considers "The Line Type Pulser," in which energy is stored in an artificial transmission line (pulse-forming network) and then discharged into the load by a switch which may take the form of a rotary spark gap, series spark gap tubes, or a hydrogen thyratron. Part Three presents the theory and design of "Pulse Transformers," and the Appendix considers "Measurement Techniques," and the concepts of "Pulse Duration and Amplitude."

The subject material is covered well and in a most comprehensive manner. For a thorough understanding of the circuits and networks developed in this book, a working knowledge of Laplace transforms is necessary; however, all the more important circuits are considered from a physical and practical standpoint. The book thus has appeal both for the rigorous theoretician and the practical designer. The value of the book could have been enhanced if the theoretical developments were preceded with performance requirements. Considerable reduction of mathematical material could be effected if all the discussions were limited to developments having practical application. Reference is frequently made to wartime Radiation Laboratory reports; these reports may be very difficult for some readers to obtain.

All things considered, this book is the most informative and complete treatment of magnetron modulators and high-power pulse generators published to date. The book truly stands as a monument to the hundreds of scientific workers, engineers, and others whose work this book describes.

William L. Mraz
Bell Telephone Laboratories, Inc.
Whippany, N.J.

Klystrons and Microwave Triodes, by Donald R. Hamilton, Julian K. Knipp, and J. B. H. Kuper.

Published (1948) by the McGraw-Hill Book Co., 330 W. 42 St., New York 18, N. Y. 526 pages, 7-page index, xiv pages. 227 figures. 6¼×9¼. $7.50.

An advanced theoretical analysis of microwave triodes and klystrons is presented in this volume (No. 7 of the Radiation Laboratory Series). The desire of the authors to present the technical and theoretical aspects of this field as completely as possible, even though this meant the exclusion of a great deal of descriptive material, makes the book most useful to tube designers and persons with considerable familiarity with the field. Readers desiring an introduction to the subject may find the material difficult to follow.

The book is divided into three distinct sections. Part I includes an introductory review of microwave techniques, microwave tube types and their applications, and a thorough treatment of the interaction between electrons and electric fields. Cavity resonators are discussed in this section because this material is also basic in character and applies equally well to triodes and klystrons. Triodes are considered specifically in Part II, and the third section on klystrons analyzes these tubes as amplifiers, frequency multipliers, and oscillators.

Almost half of the book is devoted to the analysis and discussion of reflex-klystron oscillators. Nonideal reflectors, hysteresis effects, output load characteristics, modulation, and noise are considered in this section. The other sections are equally complete in their treatment of advanced problems and second-order effects. The triode analysis is limited to the small-signal case, although material is included on the operation of triodes as oscillators under both cw and pulse conditions. Space-charge effects, large gap-transit angles, and noise are treated in considerable detail. Space-charge debunching in klystrons and large-signal conditions are included in the chapter on electron bunching.

References to outside sources are given more frequently than in some of the other volumes in the Radiation Laboratory Series, and the use of cross references has made the book relatively free of repetition. Some of the material has been adapted from previous publications, but the majority of the material is new. The representation of the transfer admittance (circuit transadmittance) of two coupled resonant circuits by a parabolic locus in Fig. 11.11 is an ideal method for the analysis of the two-resonator klystron oscillator. Apparently the beam coupling coefficient M was included in the normalized admittance Y_c and equations (3), (6), and (7) in error. Also, equation (8) should read $\sqrt{G_1/G_2}$, instead of $\sqrt{G_1/G_2}$ as shown.

The tendency to depend upon equations being self-explanatory makes the book difficult to follow. For example, equation (1) in chapter 6 relating the input voltage of a grid-separation amplifier to the power input and an input resistance R_1 may imply that the effect of plate current flowing in the input circuit has been included, but the confusion regarding this point is not clarified until mention of the usual low-frequency value of $R_1=1/g_m$ occurs eight pages later. The editorial policy to exclude descriptive material has produced a compact volume which covers its field thoroughly and will be an invaluable reference text.

A. E. Harrison
Princeton University
Princeton, N. J.

Electronic Circuits and Tubes, by the War Training Staff of the Cruft Laboratory, Harvard University.

Published (1947) by the McGraw-Hill Book Co., 330 W. 42 St., New York 18, N. Y., 933 pages, 14-page index, xxiv pages, 689 figures. 6×9. $7.50.

The scope of this text ranges from complex algebra to the Fourier transform, from sinusoidal voltage to waveshaping circuits, from resonance to phase modulation, from regenerative one-tubers to FM receivers. A surprisingly broad coverage of each subject is given, and, although necessarily limited, enough mathematics is given to reinforce and support the discussion.

Written as a result of the Cruft Laboratories work in preradar courses, the book does not offer too many evidences of its having had eleven authors. It is readable and should serve as an excellent reference for information on the many branches of the radio field outside of any reader's particular specialty. With the introductory material on ac circuits and the appended material on mathematics and electricity, it might well serve

s an extracurricular text for a student not oo conversant with electrical engineering.

The book's greatest deficiency is its inadequate coverage of tubes, only about four ages being given to thermal emission of lectrons and only a page to space-charge-imited emission. Gaseous-conduction material is also insufficiently treated. Such overmphasis of the circuit as compared to the ube was possibly desirable for preradar raining, but it now seems to leave a sizable ole in the fundamental training of electronic or radio students.

J. D. RYDER
Iowa State College
Ames, Iowa

Elements of Acoustical Engineering, by Harry F. Olson.

Published (1947) by D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc., 50 Fourth Ave., New York 3, N. Y. 539, xviii pages, 42 illustrations, 6×9 inches. $7.50.

By the time this review is in print, it will e almost a year since the appearance of this econd, and much-revised, edition of Dr. Olon's popular book on acoustical engineerng. Nevertheless, the material still to be ound only in this book is worth calling to he attention of those who may have missed he earlier reviews appearing in other techical periodicals.

Owners of the first edition of Dr. Olson's *Elements* will want to know, first of all, whether the new material introduced in the econd edition will make it necessary for hem to buy again. The answer is yes. The 57 er cent increase in the number of pages reects the fact that almost every chapter ontains new material, and there are two ntirely new chapters devoted to underwaer sound and ultrasonics. These chapters ere prepared so soon after the war that they o not reflect some of the war work in these elds that has since been declassified; neverheless, they represent virtually the only echnological material on these topics that as yet appeared in book form.

The general scheme of the second edition ollows closely that of the first. Most of the quations appear as compact statements of hysical relationships, with relatively little mphasis on the derivation. The illustrations ave been carefully executed and Dr. Olson as continued the commendable practice of aking each figure a self-contained essay, ith legend, mechanical structure, and the biquitous equivalent electric circuit apearing as necessary to carry out the objecive of self-coherence. The chapter on acousical radiating systems is especially well ilustrated and qualifies as a useful catalog of irectivity patterns. These charts would be ven more useful if a logarithmic scale had een used so that more details of the minorobe structure could be exhibited. Also, one an lament the absence of a fuller treatment f the shading of extended sources for control f the directivity pattern. Part of the deailed material from the chapter on dynamial analogies has been omitted—pardonably, n view of its fuller treatment in the author's ook on this subject published in the meanime.

The chapters on direct-radiation loudpeakers, horn loudspeakers, microphones, nd miscellaneous transducers continue to omprise the central core of the book. Numerous small-scale improvements have been made in the text of these chapters, along with the inclusion of new material on higher-order gradient microphones, phonograph pick-ups, magnetic recording; and additional material on transient response, distortion and noise, and on other miscellaneous transducers. The chapter on measurements has been expanded to include reciprocity calibration methods, the testing of phonograph pick-ups, hearing aids, and other incidental measurements about which acoustical engineers must be informed.

The chapter on architectural acoustics and the collection and dispersion of sound has been almost doubled in size and should prove invaluable to practicing sound engineers. This topic might well form the subject of a book in itself, in lieu of which Dr. Olson has fortified his digest with 74 references to the periodical literature. The chapter on speech, music, and hearing has also been approximately doubled in size, and provides a very much more adequate survey than did the first edition of this important aspect of acoustical engineering. Again one can lament the necessary omission of some of the war work on psychoacoustics.

It is doubtful whether any second edition can give the author the same psychological satisfaction afforded by a brand-new book. Nevertheless, Dr. Olson's second edition can qualify as not only bigger but better. It ought to be required reading for all radio engineers who deal with systems for the transmission of speech or music; the sound engineers already know that the contents of this book are their bread and butter.

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Cambridge 38, Mass.

Preparing for Federal Radio Operator Examinations, by Arnold Shostak.

Published (1948) by Prentice-Hall, Inc., 70 Fifth Ave., New York 11, N. Y. 391 pages, 11 pages, xi pages, 161 figures. 5¼×7¾. $3.75.

This book presents a set of prepared answers to questions appearing in a pamphlet issued by the Federal Communications Commission dated July 1, 1939, entitled "Study Guide and Reference Material for Commercial Radio Operator Examinations" (printed and sold by the Government Printing Office). Answers are given to approximately 1300 questions pertaining to the six examination elements presently set forth in the FCC Rules and Regulations concerning the various classes of commercial radio operators' licenses. Answers to approximately 250 questions appearing in three supplements to the Study Guide are not included. These supplements were released by the FCC in March, April, and June, respectively, of 1948. The book has three appendices, of which Appendix I sets forth Part 13 of the FCC Rules and Regulations Governing Commercial Radio Operators. Since publication of this book, Sections 13.1, 13.2, 13.11, and 13.74 of the Rules and Regulations have been amended, and Section 13.75 has been added. Appendix II contains extracts from the Communications Act of 1934, as amended; pertinent International Radio Treaties; and the Rules and Regulations of the FCC. Extracts from the Atlantic City International Conference, 1947, recently ratified by the United States Senate but not yet effective, are not included. Appendix III is the same as Appendix II of the Study Guide and presents abbreviations used in radio communications, as well as the International Morse Code and other miscellaneous information.

The author states that he feels that supplementary study is desirable and is to be encouraged, but that conscientious study of the book will enable the applicant to pass an examination successfully. The reviewer must point out, however, that the book should not be considered as a textbook, and believes that supplementary study is most certainly desirable and would enhance an applicant's chances of passing an examination.

Questions are answered in an original manner and differ in wording and approach from the answers to be found in similar books, all of which provides the reader with additional information or information which is not repeated by other authors. This manner of answering questions should be of value to a reader with only a limited knowledge of the subject, who may be using this and similar books in connection with his studies for an examination. The liberal use of diagrams aids the reader to visualize in a clear manner many of the questions asked. Cross references are made from question to question and element to element, which is beneficial in developing background.

Only a very few errors in mathematics have been noted and, although some answers are brief, they are adequate. No errors in theory have been noted. The mathematical errors and brevity of some answers do not detract in any manner from the value of the book, which as a whole is very well prepared and is recommended for the purpose for which it was written—to enable the student to learn while he is preparing for federal radio operators examinations.

NEAL MCNAUGHTEN
National Association of Broadcasters
Washington, D. C.

ATTENTION, AUTHORS!

Donald B. Sinclair, Chairman of the Technical Program Committee for the 1949 IRE National Convention, requests that authors of papers to be considered for presentation submit the following information to him as soon as possible:

Name and address of the author, title of the paper, and sufficient information about the subject matter to enable the reviewing committee to assess its suitability for inclusion in the Technical Program.

Although it will not be necessary to submit a paper in its entirety, Chairman Sinclair urges authors to prepare the necessary material promptly and mail it to him at 275 Massachusetts Avenue, Cambridge 39, Mass. The last possible date for acceptance of material relative to Convention papers is December 1, 1948.

IRE People

Kenneth B. Warner (A'18–M'22–F'36), for twenty-nine years secretary and general manager of the American Radio League, died recently of coronary thrombosis at his home in West Hartford, Conn.

Born in Cairo, Ill., on October 3, 1894, Mr. Warner was educated at a business school. After graduation, he worked as account and railroad freight routing agent until he became interested in radio. In Cairo he operated an amateur radio station under the call 9JT, and for many years he was licensed as W1EH.

Mr. Warner joined the ARRL in 1919, fairly soon after its organization, as managing secretary and editor of its official journal. The first World War had almost destroyed the League, but when he took over, the membership started mounting, and amateur radio was restored to the air after a legislative battle. Current total ARRL membership is estimated at approximately 67,000. In 1925 he and Hiram Percy Maxim, then president, went to Paris, France, to form the International Amateur Radio Union, which, a few years later, assumed its present form as an international association of amateur radio societies of the world. From that time on, Mr. Warner acted as secretary of the IARU as well as of the ARRL.

He is credited with having played a major role in developing amateur radio into one of the more important branches of electronics. Known as the country's "Number One Ham," he was active in the development of many electronic improvements, including applications of the vacuum tube and pioneering in high frequencies.

From the very beginning of his association with the ARRL, Mr. Warner was the amateurs' spokesman at international conferences and at regulatory proceedings in Washington. He helped to represent radio amateurs at the Washington Conference in 1927, the Madrid Conference in 1932, Cairo in 1938, and Atlantic City in 1947. He attended meetings of the CCIR at the Hague in 1929, Copenhagen in 1931, and Lisbon in 1934.

During the second World War he helped to form the War Emergency Radio Service, in which amateurs cooperated with the Board of War Communications.

Mr. Warner was an honorary member of the Association EAR, Nederlandsche Verenigng voor International Radioamateurisme. Resau Belge, Radio Club de Cuba, Rede dos Emissores Portugueses, Union de Radio Emissores Españoles, and the National Press Club. As a member of the IRE, he served on the Standardization Committee from 1928 until 1931, and on the Publicity Committee from 1931 to 1939.

Ellery W. Stone (A'14–M'16–F'24), after seventeen years of service in various executive capacities with the International Telephone and Telegraph Corp., has been elected president of the Federal Telephone and Radio Corp., a subsidiary of IT&T.

Born on January 14, 1894, in Oakland, Calif., Mr. Stone has been associated with the communications field since he became a licensed operator in 1911, while he was still a high-school student. Subsequently he attended the University of California, where he specialized in electrical and radio engineering.

After serving as a Naval officer during the first World War, Mr. Stone organized the Federal Telegraph Co. on the Pacific Coast. Later acquired by IT&T, this company became the Mackay Radio Co. of California. With IT&T, Mr. Stone successively held a number of executive posts on the various subsidiary companies.

Recalled to active duty with the U. S. Navy in 1943 as a Captain, Mr. Stone rose to the rank of rear admiral. In 1945 he received the U. S. Army Distinguished Service Medal for his outstanding work with the Allied Control Commission, as director of the Communications Subcommission, vice-president, deputy chief commissioner, and finally chief commissioner. After having restored communications in liberated Italy, as "senior representative of the Allied Control Commission at Salerno . . . then the seat of the Italian government in liberated territory . . . he dealt directly with the Italian government and was responsible for the general enforcement and execution of the surrender terms." Crown Prince Umberto presented Admiral Stone with the Order of Knight of the Grand Cross of St. Maurice and St. Lazarus, the highest award of knighthood conferred in Italy.

Returning to the United States after a distinguished four-year war career in the Mediterranean theater, Mr. Stone was elected a vice-president of IT&T. In addition to the awards already mentioned, he holds the Naval Reserve Medal with two bronze stars, the U. S. Navy Distinguished Service Medal, is a Knight Commander of the British Empire, a Grand Officer of the Crown of Italy, and a Knight of the Grand Cross of San Marino. The author of two books on radio and of various articles on communications, Mr. Stone has had a number of papers published in the PROCEEDINGS.

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George W. Henyan (A'20–VA'37), assistant to the vice president, will be manager of a new division, called the Industrial and Transmitting Tube Division, which has been formed within the tube divisions of the General Electric Co.'s electronics department at Syracuse, N. Y. **Kenneth C. DeWalt** (A'29–M'45) and **E. F. Peterson** (M'44) have been named assistant managers—the former responsible for all design engineering and manufacturing activities related to cathode-ray-tube product lines, the latter for all design engineering and manufacturing activities related to receiving tube product lines. At the same time, **Otis W. Pike** (A'26–M'29–SM'43) was appointed manager of engineering, tube divisions.

Mr. Henyan was born in San Antonio, Tex. After having graduated from the University of Texas in 1916 with the B.S. degree in electrical engineering, he joined the General Electric Co., where he has been ever since.

Born in Vinton, Iowa, Mr. DeWalt received his B.S.E.E. from the University of Iowa in 1927. He, too, was employed by General Electric immediately after his graduation, becoming designing engineer of the vacuum-tube engineering division in 1943.

Mr. Peterson, born in Waverly, Kan., was graduated from Kansas State University with the B.S. degree in electrical engineering in 1931 and the M.S. degree in 1932. After having taught physics at Sterling College in Sterling, Kan., for a year, he also joined General Electric, becoming section leader on receiving tubes in 1943.

Mr. Pike was born in Antrim, N. H., and also attended his state university, from which he received the B.S.E.E. Joining General Electric in 1920, he became engineer of the tube division in 1943. In 1948 he was awarded a distinguished service plaque for his work as first chairman of the Joint Electron Tube Engineering Council.

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Gilbert E. Gustafson (A'27–M'38–F'40), the Zenith Radio Corp.'s vice-president in charge of engineering, recently received the President's Medal of Merit for his contribution to victory in World War II as chief of Zenith's engineering research, which helped make possible that company's successful production of war material, including the V-T proximity fuze.

Born November 15, 1905, in Rock Island, Ill., Mr. Gustafson joined Zenith as a development engineer in 1925. Subsequently he became chief engineer of the radio station the company then maintained at Mount Prospect, Ill., later returning to development work at the factory. In 1934 he was made chief engineer in charge of all engineering work. Nine years later he was elected vice-president by the board of directors.

A Director of The Institute of Radio Engineers in 1943, Mr. Gustafson has also served on a number of IRE committees, including Admissions, Awards, and the Board of Editors.

Thirty-two Members of The Institute of Radio Engineers were presented with the Presidential Certificate of Merit for their outstanding services in technological research and development during World War II.

Henry B. Abajian (M'46), who is an engineer at the L. H. Terpening Co., and **George W. Bailey** (SM'46) were among those honored. Mr. Bailey, Executive Secretary of the Institute, is president of the ARRL and of the International Amateur Radio Union. In 1946 he was awarded a Marconi Memorial Service award by the Veteran Wireless Operators Association.

Wilmer L. Barrow (A'28–VA'39–M'40–F'41), chief engineer at the Sperry Gyroscope Co., was the recipient of the Morris Liebmann Memorial Prize in 1943 for his theoretical investigations of ultra-high-frequency propagation in waveguides. He has served as a Director of the Institute, and as Chairman of the Boston Section.

H. H. Benning (SM'44) is senior engineer at the Aircraft Radio Corp. **Harold H. Beverage** (A'15–M'26–F'28), director of RCA's Radio Systems Research Laboratory, won the Liebmann Memorial Prize in 1923 for his work on directional antennas, the Institute Medal of Honor in 1945 for his achievements in radio research, and the Radio Club of America's Armstrong Medal in 1938. President of the IRE in 1937, he has also been a Director.

K. Charlton Black (M'29–SM'43), chief engineer of Air Associates, Inc., owns many patents on circuit and vacuum-tube designs. **Hendrik W. Bode** (M'41–SM'43) **and Ralph Bown** (M'22–F'25) are both members of the Bell Telephone Laboratories staff. Dr. Bown, who directs research for Bell, was President of the IRE in 1927, and Vice-President in 1926, when he also received the Liebmann Prize for his researches into the more difficult elements of wave transmission phenomena.

Herbert E. Bragg (M'46) is assistant director of research at Twentieth Century-Fox Film Corp., while **Henri G. Busignies** (M'42–SM'43–F'45) is a director of the Federal Telecommunication Laboratories and a past member of the IRE Navigation Aids Committee. **John F. Byrne** (SM'45) vice-president and director of engineering at the Airborne Instruments Laboratory, and **F. Clark Cahill** (S'38–A'40–SM'45), supervising engineer, were also awarded certificates.

Howard A. Chinn (A'42–SM'45–F'45), chief audio-video engineer of the Columbia Broadcasting System, was formerly a consultant to the National Defense Research Committee Division on Radio and Radar Countermeasures during the war. **Franklin S. Cooper** (A'36) is associate research director of the Haskins Laboratories, and **Ward F. Davidson** (SM'47) is a research engineer with Consolidated Edison.

Howard D. Doolittle (M'46) is Machlett Laboratories' chief engineer. **Ora Stanley Duffendack** (SM'45), president of the Philips Laboratories, was a director of research with the National Defense Research Committee during the war. This year he was also decorated by the British Consul General with the ribbon of the King's Medal for Service in the Cause of Freedom.

John N. Dyer (J'30–A'32–SM'45), supervisor of the Airborne Instruments Laboratory, was chief communications engineer with the Byrd Antarctic Expedition. **Donald G. Fink** (A'35–SM'45–F'47), editor-in-chief of *Electronics* magazine, has been a member of numerous Institute Committees, and in 1946 won the War Department's Medal of Freedom.

Eugene G. Fubini (A'36–SM'46), supervising engineer of the Airborne Instruments Laboratory, had charge of the radio countermeasures section of O.A.S., Eighth Air Force during the war, and, also served as associate at Harvard's Radio Research Laboratory. **Raymond L. Garman** (A'39) and **Byron L. Havens** (SM'46), research engineer at the Watson Scientific Computing Laboratories, were other recipients of the honor.

L. Grant Hector (A'26–M'43), the Sonotone Corp.'s director of technical operations, has written extensively on magnetic, dielectric, and acoustical measurements by electronic techniques. **William H. Martin** (SM'46) directs apparatus development at the Bell Telephone Laboratories. **James Harold Moore** (SM'46) is an engineer at the American Telephone and Telegraph Co.

Haraden Pratt (A'14–M'17–F'29), vice-president and chief engineer of the American Cable and Radio Corp., as well as an executive of a number of other organizations, is Secretary of the Institute and was President in 1938. In 1944 he received the Medal of Honor for his engineering contributions to the development of radio.

John C. Schelleng (A'23–M'25–F'28), radio research engineer at Bell, has been a member of numerous Institute Committees. **William P. Short** (SM'44), is assistant technical director of the Federal Telecommunication Laboratories. **Hector R. Skifter** (A'31–M'36–SM'43) is president of the Airborne Instruments Laboratory.

Orrin W. Towner (A'24–M'29–SM'43), technical director of radio station WHAS in Kansas City, Mo., received the certificate for his work in supervising the building of equipment to combat rocket bombs and the installation of submarine detecting equipment. **Ernst Weber** (M'41–SM'43) is a professor at the Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn.

Vladimir K. Zworykin (M'30–F'38), director of electronics research at the RCA Laboratories, received the Liebmann Prize in 1934 for his contributions to the development of television, the Modern Pioneer Award from the National Association of Manufacturers in 1940, and the American Academy of Arts and Sciences' Rumford Medal in 1941.

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The President's Certificate of Merit was also awarded posthumously to **Browder J. Thompson,** associate research director of the RCA Laboratories, who was killed in action overseas in 1944 while serving as a consultant to the Secretary of War. In 1945 the Browder J. Thompson Memorial Prize was established, to be awarded annually to the most outstanding paper published in the PROCEEDINGS OF THE I.R.E. by an author under thirty years of age.

W. Nelson Goodwin, Jr. (A'15–M'29–SM'43), has completed fifty years with the Weston Electrical Instrument Corp. in Newark, N. J.

Joining the organization in 1898, after his graduation from the University of Pennsylvania, Mr. Goodwin was chosen in 1906 by Edward Weston, the founder, as chief engineer and director of research, and was eventually elected vice-president in charge of research and engineering. Although Mr. Goodwin is now officially retired, he still serves Weston as a consultant.

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Finley W. Tatum (A'43-SM'47), an instructor at Southern Methodist University since 1947, was recently appointed associate professor of electrical engineering. Prior to joining the university staff, Mr. Tatum was employed for approximately eleven years as section head of the American District Telegraph Company's design and development engineering department in New York City.

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Andrew W. Cruse (M'38-SM'43) has been elected president of the Radio Corp. of Porto Rico, a subsidiary of the International Telephone and telegraph Corp.

Captain Cruse (USNR), who has had extensive experience in the communications, electronics, and engineering fields, is assistant vice-president of the IT&T, with headquarters in New York. He has also been elected to the board of directors of the Radio Corporation of Porto Rico, which owns and operates radio station WKAQ in San Juan.

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Richard C. Hitchcock (A'28–M'30–SM '43) has been appointed science lecturer for the Westinghouse Laboratories, in which capacity he will tour the nation with special science shows designed to make the latest scientific advances understandable to all.

Dr. Hitchcock was born in Tougaloo, Miss., on February 26, 1900. After receiving the B.S. degree in physics from Wesleyan University in 1922, he became an assistant in the physics department as well as a graduate student, winning the M.A. degree in 1924, although he had stopped teaching there the year before in order to become assistant principal of the Burr and Burton Seminary in Manchester, Vt. In 1925 he joined the physics department of Yale University as assistant and graduate student.

Dr. Hitchcock's scientific career began when SOS wireless messages from the S. S. *Titanic* led him to build his first "crystal" set. In 1926 he joined the research department of the Westinghouse Laboratories, where his work on quartz crystals solved one of the problems of early radio broadcasting. During the next fifteen years he developed an electronic organ, photoelectric traffic-light controls, meter dials that stay white indefinitely, a color-matching machine, and the Stroboglow. He received the doctorate in 1939 from New York University and two years later returned to teaching, at Indiana State Teachers College, Indiana, Pa., where he remained until his return to Westinghouse, with the exception of three years of Navy service.

H. Myrl Stearns (S'39–A'40), formerly in charge of tube production and the tube research and development laboratory of the Sperry Gyroscope Co., has been appointed vice-president and general manager of Varian Associates, new microwave and electronic research and development laboratory at San Carlos, Calif., according to an announcement made by **Russell H. Varian** (A'40), president, and one of the founders of the organization. Dr. Varian, who holds the honorary degree of Doctor of Science from the Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute, formerly was employed by the Sperry Gyroscope Co. and, for the past two years, has been working as a research assistant at Stanford University.

Elliott Levinthal (A'44), former project engineer at the Sperry Gyroscope Co., who has just completed work for the Ph.D. degree in physics in the field of nuclear induction, has also joined the new laboratory. **William W. Hansen** (A'39–F'47) and **Edward L. Ginzton** (S'39–A'40–SM'46) of the Stanford University physics department are acting directors of the concern and will serve as consultants for specific projects. Dr. Hansen, who received an IRE Fellow Award in 1947, is one of the inventors of the klystron, which made possible radar, and also was consultant on some aspects of atomic bomb research. Dr. Ginzton, formerly in charge of the microwave research and klystron research and development departments at Sperry, has been an assistant professor of applied physics at Stanford University for the past two years.

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Harvey R. Butt (A'41), formerly Washington representative of the Radiomarine Corporation of America, was recently appointed manager of the Washington office of the same company.

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Toivo M. Liimatainen (S'412–A'4–M'45) formerly associated with Sylvania Electric Products Inc., has been appointed to the staff of the National Bureau of Standards' Electron Tube Laboratory, where he will work on the engineering and development of microwave tubes.

A native of Massachusetts, Mr. Liimatainen attended schools in Peabody, Mass., and the Lowell Institute, at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. From 1930 to 1938 he was employed by the Sylvania Electric Products Co., leaving this position in order to study at the University of Michigan. After having received the B.S. degree in 1941, he joined the staff of the General Electric Co., where he was concerned with problems related to the microwave oscillator tube of the "lighthouse" type. In 1946, he returned to Sylvania Electric Products Inc., where he worked on crystal and selenium rectifiers.

Mr. Liimatainen has done extensive work on the design and development of microwave oscillator tubes, gas discharge tubes, and the design and application of high-back-voltage selenium rectifiers. He built the first 10-centimeter microwave oscillator employing a triode of the "lighthouse" construction.

D. Gordon Clifford (M'45), formerly chief engineer of Industrial and Commercial Electronics, has been appointed field engineer at the Lenkurt Electric Co., San Carlos, Calif.

Mr. Clifford, who was one of the development engineers working on the klystron, holds engineering degrees from Dartmouth College and Harvard University.

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Alva Edward Smith (A'39–M'47), radio installation supervisor of the Western Electric Radio Division, has left New York for Sydney, Australia, where he will supervise the installation of control and terminal equipment for the Australian Government. This equipment will be used in overseas telephone communications circuits between Australia, the United States, and other parts of the world.

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Harold W. Schaefer (J'26–A'31), veteran radio and electronics engineer, has been appointed assistant manager of the Westinghouse Home Radio Division, Sunbury, Pa.

A native of Chicago, Mr. Schaefer studied electrical engineering at the Lewis Institute, and physics at the University of Chicago. Starting his radio career with Majestic–Grigsby–Grunow in 1926 as an engineer, he later became assistant to the president.

During World War II, Mr. Schaefer served at the Applied Physics Laboratory of Johns Hopkins University, where, under the Office of Scientific Research and Development, he was in charge of engineering manufacturing of the proximity fuze used by the Army and Navy to explode antiaircraft shells automatically within effective range of enemy aircraft. After his OSRD work, he was in charge of postwar radio and television planning and manufacture at the Radio Corporation of America before joining Westinghouse.

Mr. Schaefer is a member of the Physics Club of Chicago and of the AIEE.

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Ray Davis Kell (A'35–F'47), director of television research at the RCA Laboratories in Princeton, N. J., was the 1948 recipient of the Stuart Ballantine Medal of the Franklin Institute for "his outstanding pioneer work in television; the adaptation of this means of communication to military needs, and for his inventive contributions and leadership in the development of color television."

Born on June 7, 1904, in Kell, Ill., Mr. Kell was graduated from the University of Illinois in 1926 with the B.S. degree. He did graduate work at the same university until 1927, when he became associated with E. F. W. Alexanderson, of the General Electric Co.'s radio consulting laboratory. In 1930 he joined the RCA Victor Division of the Radio Corporation of America where, under his direction, many of the components of the present television system were developed, including the first high-power, high-frequency television transmitter, the first iconoscope camera, and the first remote pickup and radio relay. Twelve years later he was appointed director of television research at the RCA Laboratories in Princeton. In 1940 he received a Modern Pioneer Award from the National Association of Manufacturers, and in 1947 he received a Fellow Award from the IRE, both for his contributions to television.

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Harry F. Dart (A'20–M'26–SM'43) has been elected a trustee of the Technical Societies Council of New York, Inc., after serving two years as its treasurer. He is one of the two delegates to the Council from the New York Section of The Institute of Radio Engineers.

Mr. Dart studied electrical engineering at Purdue University, receiving the B.S. degree in 1917 and the professional degree of electrical engineer in 1923. After one year with the Western Electric Company in Chicago, he enlisted in the Signal Corps, becoming a second lieutenant in World War I. Subsequently he organized a radio course for the International Correspondence Schools in Scranton; then he taught electrical engineering for one year each at the Rice Institute and at Harvard University. In 1922, he joined the Westinghouse Electric Corp. in Bloomfield, N. J., where he has been continuously associated with various phases of radio and electronic tube engineering activities.

Elected Secretary-Treasurer of the New York Section of the IRE when it was organized late in 1942, Mr. Dart has served on several committees of the IRE and is currently a member of the Symbols Committee and of the Committee on Professional Recognition. He is also a member of the AIEE and the Radio Club of America.

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A. M. Zarem (S'42–A'46), research engineer, has been appointed chairman of physics research and manager of the new Los Angeles Division of the Stanford Research Institute.

Born in Illinois thirty-one years ago, Dr. Zarem was graduated from the Armour Institute of Technology in 1939. A year later he received the M.S. degree in electrical engineering from the California Institute of Technology, from which he also obtained the Ph.D. in 1943.

Before joining the Stanford staff, Dr. Zarem was chief of the electrical section of the physical research division of the U. S. Naval Ordnance's Pasadena Test Station. An authority on ultra-high-speed photography and measurement techniques, Dr. Zarem is the inventor of the Zarem camera, which heads the list of major precision instruments used in the photographic "microtime technique" developed at the Navy Test Station. During the war he was a research engineer and group leader on several secret government contracts in electronics and physics administered by the California Institute of Technology. He had previously been research and development engineer for the Allis-Chalmers Manufacturing Co. in Milwaukee, Wis.

W. Ryland Hill, Jr.

Chairman, Seattle Section, 1948–1949

W. Ryland Hill, Jr., was born in Seattle, Wash., on February 1, 1911. After receiving the B.S. degree in electrical engineering from the University of Washington in 1934, he spent two years with the Northern Radio Co. of Seattle as a laboratory and design engineer.

From 1936 until 1938 Professor Hill taught at the University of California on a fellowship, and also did graduate work which, plus an additional year of part-time research, resulted in his receiving the degrees of M.S. in electrical engineering in 1939 and E.E. two years later.

Upon leaving the University in 1938, Professor Hill joined the staff of the Standard Oil Co. of California's general engineering department, where he remained until 1941, when he was appointed assistant professor of electrical engineering at the University of Washington. In 1947 his rank was advanced to that of associate professor.

At the University of Washington, Professor Hill has taught a variety of electrical engineering courses, especially electronic circuitry and electroacoustics. He is a firm believer in the basic engineering education with physics and mathematics as the core. Although he started teaching when the University was on a civilian basis, the staff was soon plunged into the communications option of the Navy V-12 program which occupied the college of engineering until the end of the war.

Professor Hill became an Associate Member of the IRE in 1943 and a Member the year following. Several of his numerous papers have appeared in the PROCEEDINGS OF THE I.R.E. He is a member of Tau Beta Pi, and an associate member of the University of Washington Research Society.

Andrew Friedenthal

Chairman, Detroit Section, 1948–1949

Andrew Friedenthal was born in Detroit, Mich., on September 1, 1904. He became interested in radio at the age of fourteen, and was an active amateur enthusiast by the time he joined the U. S. Navy in 1920. After training at the U. S. Naval Radio Schools he was assigned to duty on the USS *Melville*. In 1922, however, he was transferred to Sitka, Alaska, where he helped maintain the Navy's high-powered radiotelegraph station NPB. After a year, he was transferred to NVH, Ketchikan, where he continued his radio work until he left the Navy in 1924.

The following summer he worked as a ship operator and in the fall of 1925 he was appointed manager of the Intercity Radiotelegraph Co.'s Detroit division. There he pioneered in what was then called "short wave" in the 10,000- to 20,000-kc band, establishing short-wave code channels for intercity communications.

In 1926 Mr. Friedenthal joined the engineering staff of WJR, Detroit. During 1930 and 1931 he also organized the engineering staff of WJR's sister station, WGAR, in Cleveland, Ohio. A short time later, he wrote the specifications for the first ac-operated high-level-switching program-distribution system, which is still in use at WJR. In 1938 he suggested and supervised the construction of a four-unit transcription turntable in one mounting. At present Mr. Friedenthal is engineer in charge of studios at WJR.

Joining the IRE as an Associate in 1935, Mr. Friedenthal became a Member three years later. He was Vice-Chairman of the Detroit Section before becoming Chairman. He is also a member of the Engineering Society of Detroit.

Technical Problems of Military Radio Communications of the Future*

JOHN HESSEL†, SENIOR MEMBER, IRE

Summary—**The success of military operations in the future will depend greatly upon the availability of a communication system of adequate mobility, traffic capacity, and reliability. An analysis of the factors which prohibit the realization of such a system at the present time shows the need for research in all phases of radio communication. A number of the more pressing limitations of existing techniques are discussed to develop the basic research problems.**

AN EXAMINATION of military history shows that in each new war there are improvements in offensive tactics which may take either of two forms, increase in fire power or increase in mobility, or both. History also teaches that the effective use of each new weapon and defense against it requires communications improved in speed, volume, and reliability proportionally greater than the increase in speed and power of the weapons.

No one can now foresee what military operations of the future may be, except that there will be atomic power instead of TNT, and rockets instead of aircraft. Defense as well as attack will depend upon the strategic deployment of small, fast-moving, hard-hitting forces transported and supplied by air for long periods. These units will require the closest of co-operation and co-ordination of all arms and services. In many respects, future operations may resemble those of the last war in the Pacific more than those in Europe. There will probably be many small theaters of operation, each of which must have communication with the others, and with the staff and supply organizations of the United States. In addition to the command and administrative traffic of the past, these circuits must carry other forms of electrical signals representing, for instance, facsimile, map co-ordinates, meteorological conditions, and others, for, with long-range missiles, one of the principal functions of these outposts will be defense of the Zone of the Interior.

The military services face the task of devising a system of communication capable of carrying all the types of traffic required by push-button warfare in volume far greater than anything previously experienced, with reliability comparable to the best commercial telephone and telegraph practice, and capable of being installed in any part of the world, inhabited or not, in any climate, in the shortest possible time. This means, of course, that the equipment must be air-transportable with the consequent drastic limitations on size, weight, and personnel. Regardless of advances in science, there have been practically no improvements in mankind, and so this system must be usable by troops not very different in capability from those who manned the first crossbow infantry.

To provide the required speed and mobility, it is evident that there will be much greater reliance on radio in the future and, therefore, that the traffic capacity and reliability of radio communication must be greatly improved. Despite the advances made in the last war period, and the wide dispersion of our forces, wire lines still carried approximately 95 per cent of all message traffic. Wire lines must still be used, wherever they are available in the future, as the backbone of the communication system, leaving the radio-frequency spectrum free for those services which wire lines cannot provide.

Long-Haul Circuits

Radio communication is used for three primary functions. First, it provides communication over long-haul circuits where no wire facilities exist or are practical. An example of this type of circuit is the Army Command and Administrative Network which links the Department of the Army with its outposts over the world. The introduction of the carrier-shift radioteletype greatly increased the traffic capacity of these circuits during the war years, and made it possible to route teletype on a subscriber-to-subscriber basis without the immense waste of time and effort in message and signal centers at either end of the radio circuit.

But several basic difficulties remain. The usable frequency spectrum for long-range sky-wave transmission lies between about 3 and 30 Mc and cannot be expanded. High-frequency assignments are not private trunk circuits but party lines, subject not only to interference from the enemy, and from enemy sources beyond control, but also from natural static and the vagaries of the ionosphere. There are not enough usable frequency assignments in this spectrum to meet all requirements in time of war by present methods.

The fundamental problem is to develop the means for making the best possible use of every cycle of the spectrum. If it were practical to use single-sideband transmissions exclusively, the possible number of available voice channels would be doubled. But, before this can be done, single-sideband transmitters must be simplified to the point where they can be operated by GI operators, not engineers. Present-day carrier-shift teletype circuits require frequency assignments with about 5000 cps separation. On wire lines the standard bandwidth of teletype channels is 170 cps. When radio can do as well, the number of available teletype channels will be increased by a factor of 30. One method is, of course, to multi the teletype signals on a frequency-divi basis, and modulate the transmitter with resultant on a single-sideband basis. this means, it may be possible to get ab sixteen circuits in a 5-kc transmitted ba an efficiency compared with wire circuit about 80 per cent.

This has not been done yet, but is c ceivable in the not-too-distant future; h ever, there are many requirements for sin channel radioteletype circuits, and meth are required by which it is possible to ass channels for such service with a separat of only a few hundred cycles, rather t 5 kc as at present. The fundamental fac that there is not enough now known ab circuitry, or about the fundamental chem substances of which circuits are compos

Still, one must reckon with the vaga of the transmission medium, including ever-varying ionosphere. Space-diversity ception can be used at fixed installations when installation time is not critical, mobile terminals are also required wh space diversity is impossible. Frequer diversity is possible, of course, but t means that bandwidth is sacrificed. Doub frequency transmission loses all that been gained by single-sideband transmissi There is need for the development of method of diversity reception usable mobile terminals, and which does not c bandwidth.

Circuits to Moving Terminals

The second primary use of radio co munication in the Army is to provide c cuits to moving terminals where wire circu cannot be installed. Examples of such c cuits are the radio networks in armor forces and in air forces. Prior to the war, was found advantageous to use frequenc above 20 Mc for this service. This fre sky-wave frequencies for use in long-ha circuits and, conversely, eliminated lon range interference with short-range circui The advent of FM practically eliminat all other interference, and permitted t operation of short-range tactical radio n works of quality and reliability comparal to telephone loops. Because of the limit interference range of such transmissions a capture effect, frequency assignments c be duplicated at rather short range; hen thousands of such networks can be operat within a theater area. But the demands such service again far exceed the availal assignments within the interference ran

With present techniques using cryst controlled oscillators in both receiver a transmitter, a 3000-cps voice band is tra mitted with a 5 to 1 deviation ratio occup ing an rf bandwidth of 30,000 cps. But s it is necessary to separate frequency assig

* Decimal classification: R560. Original manuscript received by the Institute, March 21, 1948; revised manuscript received, July 9, 1948. Presented, 1947 IRE West Coast Convention, San Francisco, Calif., September 24, 1947.

† Signal Corps Engineering Laboratories, Fort Monmouth, N. J.

ments by 100 kc because of instabilities and inadequate selectivity. Thus, two out of three possible assignments have been wasted not counting those lost due to interference at short range, even with this separation.

By the use of the most stable crystal-controlled oscillators and filters, it is possible that the channel separation can be cut to 50 kc, a saving of two to one. But the problem of producing crystals of this quality in quantities something like twenty times greater than were produced in the last war per unit of troops is formidable. The problem, then, is to develop oscillators and circuits of stability as good as modern quartz crystals, but without the crystals, and preferably tunable.

In this case, it is interesting to note the part which quartz plays in stable design. The best dielectric material for variable capacitors and for coil forms is fused quartz. To minimize the temperature effect caused by metals in variable capacitors, it is necessary to make the whole structure of quartz and to provide conductivity, where required, by plating. For stability in the microwave region, quartz is used for resonant cavities. The problem is to develop materials, both conducting and dielectric, having the stability of quartz without its manufacturing difficulties and its fragility. This is a problem for the chemists and physicists.

Radio Relay Systems

The third primary use of radio communications is for radio relay systems. This use grew out of the preceding two, in an attempt to provide long-distance circuits of good telephone quality without expending the precious high-frequency spectrum or being subject to its interference. The first attempts were simply forward-echelon very-high-frequency FM sets with the transmitters and receivers back-to-back at relay points. Later, pulse modulation of centimeter waves was introduced by adaptation of radar techniques. The frequency-modulated sets handled four voice channels, frequency-division multiplexed, while the centimeter-wave sets handled eight channels by time-division multiplex. Basically, radio relay provides an rf substitute for wire and cable long-distance trunk circuits. The advantage is that it costs much less shipping tons per circuit mile, and can be installed more quickly with less men.

The demand for this type of service is complete evidence of its value. But important as this new achievement now is, a comparison with telephone circuits indicates its present faults. The FM radio relay of World War II handled four telephone circuits over not more than five or six jumps of about thirty miles each, with a signal-to-noise plus crosstalk ratio of something like 30 db. A standard Bell System K carrier circuit handles twelve channels per cable pair over the same distance, with approximately 50 db signal-to-noise plus crosstalk ratio.

The centimeter-wave equipments were designed to perform as via trunks with 50 db signal-to-noise ratio. But they are limited to eight single voice channels, one of which is usually used as an order wire for maintenance purposes. There is no provision for transmission of wide-band signals, such as television or high-speed facsimile. On the other hand, coaxial telephone cables now handle frequency-stacked groups of 480 voice channels or television signals out to 4 Mc. It is necessary to provide very-high frequency FM radio relay comparable in performance with commercial carrier telephone service, and microwave radio relay circuits comparable with coaxial telephone cable.

Careful mathematical analyses have been made of all the aspects of this problem. These show that the most difficult problem to be solved is to devise a distortion-free means of modulating wide-band signals upon a microwave carrier and subsequently demodulating them. To handle a multiplexed group of 100 voice channels in a bandwidth of 500 kc, and to transmit them over 100 jumps averaging 30 miles and recover each with a signal-to-noise and crosstalk ratio of 50 db, requires that the distortion caused in each link be less than 0.1 per cent.

Antennas

There are, of course, many other problems of a general nature which remain to be solved. One of these is the insistent demand for more efficient and more effective antennas. With the use of wider and wider frequency coverage, there is insistence upon the development of broadband antennas which need not be tuned and for smaller antennas (for instance, on tanks) which are not so visible and do not interfere with the guns. The infantryman demands an antenna which does not interfere with his progress in the jungle and make him the prime target of every sniper who knows what an antenna means. It is necessary to plan for major installations to be in deep bombproof shelters, and it may be unsafe even to make tuning adjustments on the surface, to say nothing of repairing bomb damage.

The terms "efficient" and "effective," used to describe the performance characteristics, may be differentiated in this way. A transmitting antenna is efficient if it radiates practically all of the energy available in the output circuit of a transmitter. A receiving antenna is efficient if it delivers substantially all of the energy which it collects at the receiver input terminals. Generally speaking, both transmitting and receiving antennas may be made efficient, if they operate near their resonant frequencies and are properly matched to the input and output circuits. This would seem to dictate that, for small, inconspicuous antennas, an extremely high frequency must be used. But the amount of energy which a receiving antenna collects is a function of its physical size, other factors being equal.

Therefore, as frequency is increased and the size of a resonant antenna decreased, its effectiveness as a collector goes down, although its efficiency may be constant. In cases where a resonant antenna cannot be used, coupling circuits must be provided which cancel the reactive component, in addition to matching impedances. With these, good efficiencies can be achieved if the network is substantially loss-free. Theoretically, this technique could be carried to the point of efficiently radiating energy from antennas which are extremely short both physically and electrically. But the technique has yet to be devised whereby large amounts of energy can be collected with a receiving antenna which is physically short. What seems to be needed is an effective wave magnet.

The present understanding of the behavior of antennas is based on the work of Maxwell performed about eighty years ago. Since that time, his work has been studied repeatedly without discovering phenomena which cannot be explained by his equations. They are, therefore, considered valid and are accepted as a law of nature. If it is true that present-day antenna designs represent nearly the ultimate which can be achieved by these theories, then the radical improvements which are needed can be achieved only after fundamental discoveries as basic and as advanced as Maxwell's have been made.

Planning Future Research

Planning the research and development program for the solution of problems such as these is one of the foremost jobs in which the service laboratories have been engaged since the end of hostilities. The Signal Corps alone is sponsoring research and development totaling millions of dollars in scores of universities and colleges and private and commercial laboratories, in addition to its own efforts.

But the service laboratories alone cannot possibly suggest, sponsor, and direct all of the work which will be necessary. Such problems as these cannot be reduced to terms of dollars and cents and solved simply by contracting for a certain amount of effort for a year or two. Their solutions will come from the mind of man, not from his hands. They require the careful thought and patient research of many men, their findings properly evaluated and correlated with other efforts, verified by experiments and aided now and then by sparks of genius to reconcile the irrational and so accomplish the impossible. Such work cannot be purchased; it cannot be hired; it must be inspired.

The radio engineering profession is challenged to produce advances in its science and techniques as far-reaching as those being made in other fields, for communications are the nervous system of our national defense and only radio can provide the speed and mobility which will be essential if ever again our national security is imperiled. The services rely upon the profession to keep the subject of national defense constantly in mind and to make many important contributions. Only through the co-operation of the entire profession with the efforts of the service laboratories can our full scientific potential be realized.

Telemetering Guided-Missile Performance*

JAMES C. COE†, VOTING ASSOCIATE, IRE

Introduction

A STATEMENT was once made by Lord Kelvin to the effect that when you were able to measure something, then you were in a position to talk about it.

Progress in the development of pilotless aircraft and guided missiles, including testing techniques, has been extremely rapid since VE Day. It is imperative that adequate instrumentation be provided to test and evaluate all phases of guided-missile performance. The types referred to herein include target-type pilotless aircraft, and missiles in which the propelling force is not gravitational or delivered solely during the initial stages of the flight. There are aerodynamic control and supporting surfaces such as wings, flaperons, rudders, etc. Stated in the negative sense, these are pilotless aircraft rather than bombs, projectiles, or rockets.

In the field of pilotless aircraft, including targets and guided missiles, as in conventional aircraft, a great deal of information can be obtained on the ground, from wind tunnels, and from test stands. Pilotless aircraft and missiles can be carried under the wing of the parent plane in captive flight for additional information. Such an installation is shown in Fig. 1, with a KDD suspended under a PB4Y-1. With missiles capable of outdistancing any chaser plane, direct observation by the pilot is limited. Instruments being photographed inside the missile yield useful information, but they are not satisfactory where very rapid changes are involved and the information only becomes available hours later, if ever. From the wreckage shown in Fig. 2, an armored film magazine was recovered.

Official U. S. Navy Photograph

Fig. 1—KDD target-type pilotless aircraft suspended under a PB4Y-1.

Official U. S. Navy Photograph

Fig. 2—An armored film magazine was removed from this wreckage.

Under actual launching and flight conditions, information can be obtained by observation from the chaser plane, through phototheodolites, and by other optical means. Photographic data are extremely useful during the launching and early stages of flight. Fig. 3 shows a KUW after separation from the sled and the piston of the catapult. A small target-type pilotless aircraft is shown on its catapult in Fig. 4. This target is recovered by means of a parachute contained within the hatch which is aft of the wing. Extremely accurate position information is not so important with guided missiles also capable of homing on a target as it is with projectiles. Doppler radar and doppler radio

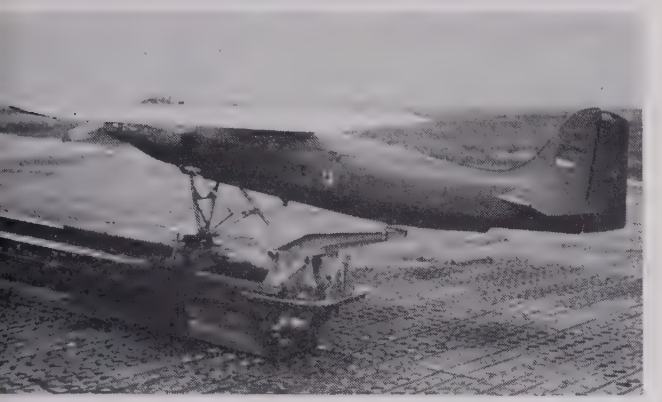
Official U. S. Navy Photograph

Fig. 3—KUW after separation from launching sled and piston.

* Decimal classification: 621.375.616×R560. Original manuscript received by the Institute, October 15, 1947; revised manuscript received, May 17, 1948. Presented, 1947 IRE West Coast Convention, September 24, 1947, San Francisco, Calif.

† U. S. Naval Air Missile Test Center, Point Mugu, Calif.

yield velocity information primarily, while position is obtained directly from tracking radar or from explosive charges dropped over water and located by underwater-sound measurements. Velocity and position information are valuable, but yield information only on the effect, leaving the causes open to conjecture. An integration of all the causes is required, and can best be supplied by telemetry.



Official U. S. Navy Photograph

Fig. 4—XKD2R-1 on catapult.

All ground tests have obvious limitations. Aerodynamic factors cannot be adequately controlled simultaneously by scale factors in a reduced-scale wind tunnel. Supports, tunnel walls, tunnel temperature and pressure—all cause errors to enter into the determination of the aerodynamics of the missile. Vibrations occuring in free flight may augment those due to the propulsion to cause malfunctioning of many components. Ram air is necessary for the simulation of flight conditions in air engines. Control mechanisms likewise encounter a different set of conditions at high speeds and altitude. The effects of hot gases on radio control at higher altitudes has been the subject of some concern. Performance is different at speeds higher than the parent plane is capable of obtaining.

Early Forms of Telemetering

Telemetry is a word of Greek origin meaning measurement from a distance. The word is generally taken to include the conversion of quantities to be studied into electrical signals, the transmission of these over a radio link, their reception, and their presentation in the form of indications or permanent recordings. From the latter they may be studied at leisure. Thus, telemetering permits the measurement and study of performance from a remote point. Photographic or other recordings made aloft are not considered telemetering, since there is no distance involved between the instruments and the recorders. The use of the word "informer" as applied to the transmission of measurements by radio has been superceded by "telemeter." A simple form makes available only "yes-no" information, such as fuze arming time. This type simply tells an observer when an event has taken place. A usual form that this takes is by changing an audio modulation frequency each time an event takes place. The frequency change gives evidence that the transmitter was working both before and after each successive event. In such a transmitter no rigid demands are made on the stability of the audio frequency, or upon its wave form. If an instrument panel were observed through the medium of television, this would constitute a form of telemetering having in effect a large number of channels in which quantitative information is made immediately available for observation and recording. Radiosondes, as suspended from weather balloons, provide weather information by sampling the readings of various meteorological instruments in sequence. Resistance values are caused to vary due to humidity, temperature, etc., which in turn cause modulation of the transmitter. Originally the transmitter consisted of a single channel which was commutated. Telemetering in one form or another has been used in radio-controlled and other airplanes for a number of years. Pilotless aircraft and missiles present their own peculiar problems, due to limited space, high launching acceleration, high speed, and the varied and numerous measurements required.

Requirements of Telemetering

A great deal of information is desired through the various stages of a missile test program, such as launching information, flight data, and automatic homing. It is required to know at one time changes in attitude including roll, pitch, and yaw; position determinations such as air speed and altitude; additional aerodynamic information such as is obtained from the various accelerations; ambient conditions such as temperature, humidity, and pressure; structural information such as vibration and strain; control functions such as the functioning of the control receiver, autopilot operation, servo operation, displacements of control surfaces, operation of the homing or target-seeking equipment; propulsion information including fuel flow and thrust; ordnance functions such as fuze arming time; upper-air research; the performance of the electrical system; and information regarding the telemetering equipment itself, including reference voltages for calibration and timing marks which permit synchronizing recordings as received by several receivers located along the flight path. Many of the above measurements are interrelated. Some require a high order of time resolution, especially as the speed of the missile increases, while for others a few samplings per second are entirely adequate. A telemetering system must be capable of transmitting large amounts of varied data per second. With so much information to be desired, a multichannel system is plainly indicated, since a single commutated channel would not give sufficient time resolution.

Except for certain target pilotless aircraft which are equipped with parachutes for their recovery, missiles are fired only once. During that flight certain informa-

tion is required before the next phase of the test program is started. Any malfunctioning is corrected and new functions are added. Due to unforeseen difficulties, the changes in the telemetering installation are made to fit the requirements of the particular test, and the exact functions to be telemetered for each flight must be carefully chosen. For example, a small number of functions, rather than a large number on a time-division basis, may be more exactly studied, and at a considerable saving in time necessary to instrument the missile. A common mistake is to demand the full utilization of the maximum number of end instruments without due regard to the selection of the functions as applied to the purposes of the test. Having determined the measurements to be made, the ranges of measurement should be properly selected so as to present that portion of the range most useful to the test being conducted. Since most missiles are fired only once, it is imperative that the telemetering be reliable, or a sizable expenditure of time and money will be wasted. It follows, therefore, that accuracy, stability, and simplicity are imperative. Because of this, telemetering personnel check their calibration work just prior to launching. Launchings are made from the mainland and San Nicolas Island, from shipboard or aircraft. Fig. 5 is a pictorial representation

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Fig. 5—Pictorial representation of Naval Aircraft Missiles Test Center, Point Mugu, Calif.

of the sea range of the Naval Aircraft Missiles Test Center, Point Mugu, Calif. Launchings subject the telemetering equipment to severe conditions, particularly due to acceleration or condensation. Thus before launching at high altitude from the parent plane, the parts will have become cooled; then, upon reaching a low altitude the condensation which takes place may impair operation of the telemetering equipment.

Malfunctioning of the control equipment may cause the missile to roll, or it may be thrown into a climb or steep dive, and through all these gyrations the telemetering equipment must continue to function. A directional antenna may cause the signal to be lost entirely, along with valuable information, at a critical time; therefore, such an antenna requires more receiving stations. The pattern of the antenna on the missile should be such that reception will not be impaired due to such changes in attitude. The antenna should not present

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Fig. 6—KD2-C equipped with a stub which is not insulated from the airframe and which is fed internally.

too much drag, and with supersonic missiles this becomes an increasingly important factor. Pitot tubes or an insulated section of the nose have been used as radiators. These are not always efficient radiators, so the airframe itself may be excited through a feed line of one kind or another. At this activity there has been developed a "zero drag" antenna without slots or insulated sections, as shown in Fig. 6. To do this the airframe was excited at the base of the stabilizer by an internal feed line. This was possible by means of an opening around the tail pipe, and because of the fact that covers are attached with fasteners spaced at wide intervals. A spike extending aft supplied end loading and improved the three-dimensional pattern of radiation. Another spike, electrically continuous with the airframe, is shown in Fig. 7. In this instance the airframe was excited by a feed line external to the target pilotless aircraft.

As in any measurement, the telemetering equipment should not impair operation, nor should it exert an undue influence upon the quantity to be measured. In small target pilotless aircraft, for example, the distribution of telemetering equipment is important in order that the center of gravity remain unchanged. Telemetering equipment should be appropriately packaged to fit the particular requirements of the airframe, and this is generally done by utilizing a number of small components properly located with respect to vibration, temperature, etc.

The final requirement of telemetering is the proper recording of the data, and the most usual method is the recording on paper or film. The decoding equipment, which cuts down the routine work of data reduction, is part of the receiving equipment, as is indicating equipment which shows the variation of certain quantities as the flight progresses.

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Fig. 7—XKD2R airframe excited by an external feed line. The spike is electrically continuous to the horizontal stabilizer.

Frequency Bands

While most of the work has been done under 100 Mc, this is at present on a noninterference basis. The new channels are from 217 to 220 Mc, and from 2200 to 2300 Mc. Some telemetering has also been done in the neighborhood of 440 and 520 Mc. Operation at higher frequencies poses so many difficulties that their use is not warranted in small missiles.

Time Resolution

As the speed of missiles increases and reaction times become less, accurate time studies become more important. When it is considered that the entire time required to home upon a target is only a small portion of the entire flight, the seriousness of the problem becomes readily apparent.

The problem starts with the end instruments, of which there are many varieties. The more common types depend either upon motion or upon a temperature or current change. Diaphragms, bellows, bourdon tubes, gyros, autosyns, vanes, and the like, depend upon motion for their action. These take in a large variety of measurements, including altitude, pressure, position, and flow. Force, pressure, velocity, and acceleration measurements usually involve mechanical motion. Even with strain-gage measurements there must be motion, however slight, and wherever there is motion the mechanics of the system, including damping and inertia, become a factor. If the damping coefficient of an accelerometer for example, is 65 or 70 per cent of critical, as commonly used, it requires about one cycle to arrive within 5 per cent of the final value. The sensitivity generally varies inversely as the square of the frequency. In other words, a sensitive system is sluggish, and one with a more rapid response is less sensitive. A coil which cuts flux involves either motion or a change in flux. Due to the self-inductance of the winding, time is required between the initial and final conditions. Temperature measurements involve means which are usually sluggish, whether a change in position, resistance, or generated voltage is involved.

While the great majority of end instruments require time to reflect a change, the transducers attached to them would necessarily have to respond equally fast if the time resolution is to remain unimpaired. Potentiometers used as transducers have limitations in this respect. Resolution takes on a different meaning in the dynamic sense, rather than a static one involving only turns per inch or ohms per degree of rotation. Variable-reluctance-type transducers as described below are capable of a very rapid response.

The time resolution or frequency response of a telemetering channel need not exceed that of the end instrument or transducer. Progress in the radio end of telemetering toward the obtaining of frequency-response characteristics necessary for a high order of time resolution far exceeds that in most end instruments and transducers. It is odd that some telemetering systems, which are superior from the standpoint of bandwidth, are designed for potentiometer-type transducers which cannot give an intelligible response during rapid changes. The time resolution and accuracy of telemetering may also suffer due to the recording process. This may be due to the optics of the recording means when distortion results from the cathode-ray-tube and camera combination. The speed at which film or paper travels through the recorder is also a factor in obtaining data during rapid changes of the function being telemetered.

Transducers

The transducer performs the function of converting the varying physical quantity under measurement into an electrical quantity. The transducer is generally referred to as the electrical link following the end instrument. It is just as important that the transducers be able to withstand the rigorous conditions of acceleration, vibration, temperature, humidity, etc., as any other link in the system. This conversion need not always be linear. It is sometimes desired to have it vary nonlinearly. The end instrument may not be linear, but by proper design of the transducer, the calibration curve of the variation of the physical quantity as plotted against the electrical output of the transducer may be linear. Also, it may be desired to emphasize a critical

part of the range by having a small change produce a relatively large change in transducer output. There are too many types of transducers as applied to end instruments to cover the entire field, except in a general way. They may be classified according to whether they are modulating or generating. Examples of the modulating type are the variable inductance, variable capacitance, and the variable resistance. Examples of the latter are potentiometers, resistance strain gages, and electron tubes. Electron tubes may also be operated as the generating type of transducer. Other kinds of generating transducers include the piezoelectric, photoelectric, thermoelectric, and magnetic. The generating type, as applied, is not always capable of completely modulating the designated circuit of the transmitter, nor is the modulating type always capable of completely performing this function. In these instances the transducer must be modified or the output amplified so that small initial variations are caused to produce the required modulation. For the sake of simplicity, weight, and space, it is extremely desirable to use simple transducers capable of producing the necessary output.

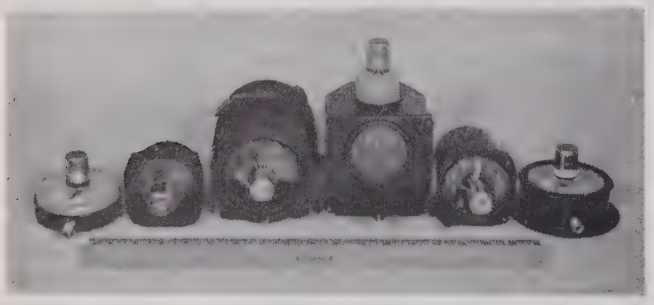

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Fig. 8—Fuel pressure, airspeed, gyro horizon, direction gyro, altitude, and air-pressure instruments equipped with microtorque potentiometers for telemetry.

A primary step in instrumenting a missile is to calibrate each end instrument with its transducer attached. Often standard aircraft instruments are modified by the addition of the transducer, and the transducer must not impair the operation of the instrument. A group of such instruments with potentiometer-type transducers is shown in Fig. 8. A low-torque potentiometer requiring a torque of only a few thousandths of an inch-ounce will cause measurable drag on some instruments, such as the 1000-foot range of aircraft altimeters. If close indications of altitude are desired, an instrument and transducer in combination designed for the purpose is a better answer. Another method is to couple a variable-reluctance type of transducer to the instrument by attaching a small piece of magnetic material to the needle. The torque necessary to drive the metal is extremely low. This arrangement is best fitted to work into a frequency-changing arrangement such as results when the reluctance of a frequency-controlling inductance is caused to vary with motion. Usually this is the tank coil of an audio oscillator, whose frequency then varies with the position of the metal segment. Correct operation is obtained when the metal and tank padder capacitor are adjusted to the center frequency of the carrier, and the shape or position of the metal is adjusted so that the frequency is caused to vary the desired amount. The frequency of the oscillator may be

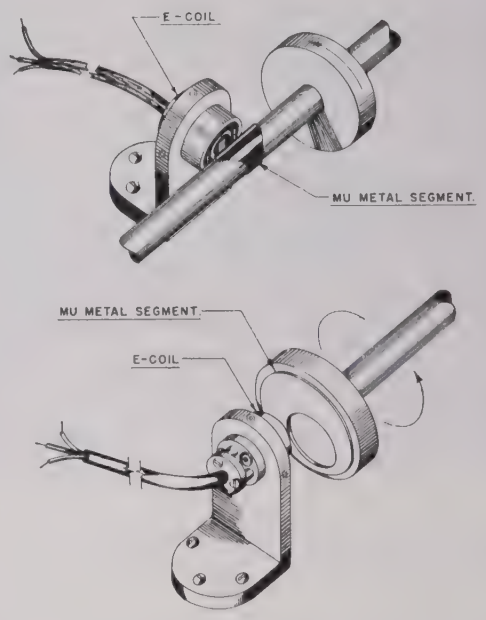

Fig. 9—Two methods of adapting an *E* coil for use as a tachometer.

varied over the desired range by causing a change of as little as a few thousandths of an inch in the transducer air gap. It is also possible to obtain the change in fre-

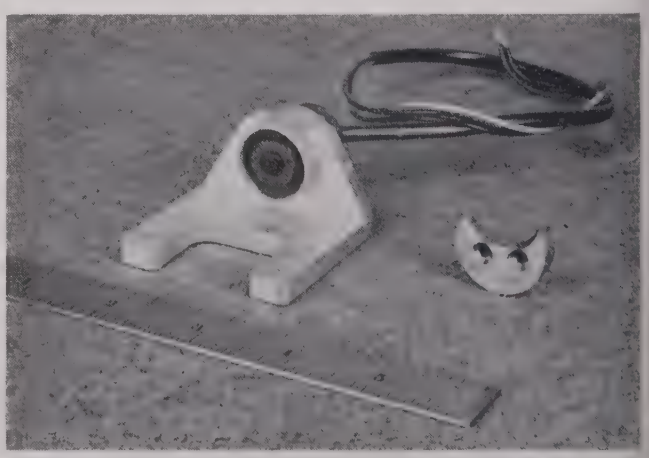

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Fig. 10—*E* coil and mu-metal segment for tachometer or motion meter.

quency from a large change in air gap with increased spacing of the metal. These transducers are excellently adapted for attachment to such instruments as accelerometers, altimeters, airspeed indicators, pressure gages, tachometers, and various position and displacement meters. Figs. 9, 10, and 11 show some of these

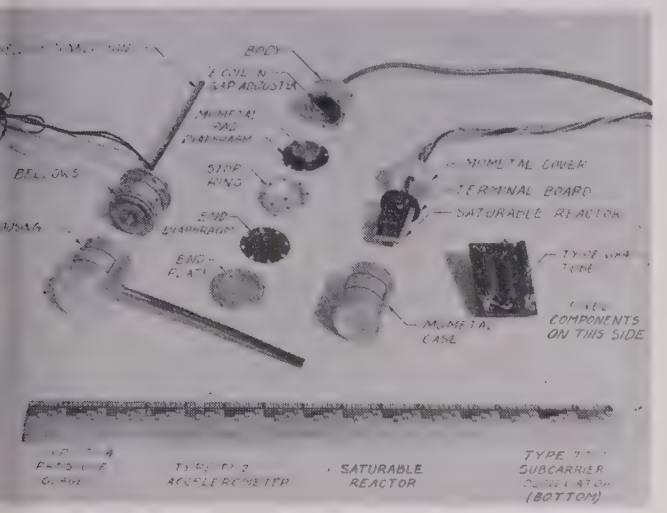

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Fig. 11—Pressure gage and accelerometer with *E* coils, saturable reactor, and oscillator.

applications. A saturable reactor has been developed which also embodies the tank circuit of an audio oscillator, and is shown in Fig. 11. Information obtained from resistance strain-gage bridges, thermopiles, and current changes of a few milliamperes can thus be converted into af changes. Mu metal is widely used in order to reduce errors due to hysteresis.

Telemetering Systems

It is not possible to cover all the various types of systems, and so in this paper the telemetering systems which show particular promise will be discussed. They can be divided into two classifications; namely, frequency-modulated multiple subcarrier, frequency-modulated carrier (frequency-division), and pulse-position (time-division) systems which differ greatly in design.

Since the FM/FM system is used most commonly, it is covered in some detail. Synchronizing circuits are not required, since this is a function of the subcarriers, and distinction between channels is achieved by them. Frequency-modulated subcarrier FM telemeters are relatively simple since the total number of components in the system are few, resulting in low power requirements and small size. Test equipment and techniques are well established. The underlying theory of operation is similar to FM broadcasting, so the specialized training of technicians does not present a serious problem. This is a factor, considering the range crews required to operate the various island stations and to instrument a number of missiles and targets each week. Frequency modulation of the subcarriers also has an advantage from the standpoint of noise.

In the design of equipment employing frequency modulation of the subcarriers, emphasis is placed upon the frequency stability of the subcarrier oscillators, even though ambient conditions such as temperature, humidity, acceleration, or power-supply voltage vary as the flight progresses. Any drift in subcarrier frequency would appear as a change in the function being telemetered. By incorporating a switching arrangement in the receiver which, in effect, removes the intelligence from the subcarrier for a few hundredths of a second, any drift in center frequency becomes evident by a displacement of the recorded trace, which can be taken into account in the process of data reduction.

In Fig. 12 is shown a multivibrator type of oscillator circuit with a preamplifier and *RC* filter. This is used in connection with low-torque potentiometer-type trans-

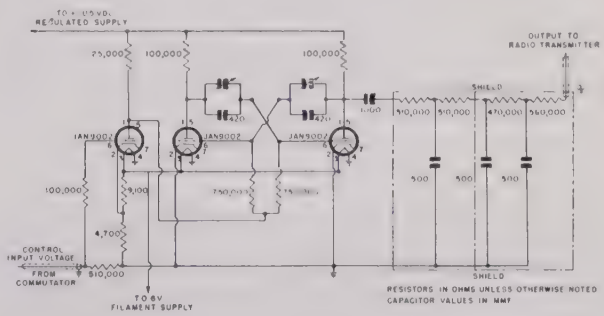

Fig. 12—Preamplifier, multivibrator, and *RC* filter used with end instruments equipped with low-torque potentiometers.

ducers. The function being telemetered causes a maximum variation of 3 volts to be impressed upon the preamplifier in order to obtain the desired frequency deviation. Fig. 13 is a phase-shift oscillator adapted to the telemetering of voltages from a high-impedance source. *RC* filtering of the plate supply to each oscillator is used to reduce interchannel interference through the power-supply leads. The simple oscillator shown in Fig. 11 has a very low harmonic output, and is used without filtering the output, although it would be a simple matter to add *RC* filtering since a high resistance is necessary to reduce the output to the necessary value. The higher harmonics coming from the low-frequency subcarriers would result in cross talk with the higher-frequency subcarrier channels, and it is therefore necessary that they be kept down. To preclude the possibility of second-harmonic cross modulation, the limit frequencies of each band are so selected that their second harmonics fall outside the ranges of the other channels. These frequencies are as follows: 2300, 3000, 3900, 5400, 7350, and 12,300 cps.

With a deviation of plus or minus 7.5 per cent there is less likelihood of cross modulation due to harmonics than if a greater deviation were used. The wave-form requirements of the modulated subcarriers are less exacting with this deviation than with a greater deviation. This has resulted in a corresponding reduction in the pass band, and of the modulating frequency of the intelligence. The characteristics of the several filters used

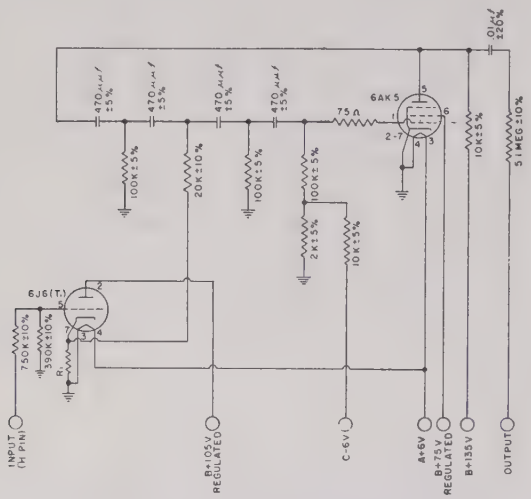

Fig. 13—Phase-shift oscillator for voltage from a high-impedance source.

in the receiving equipment to separate the modulated subcarriers are likewise limited to pass the frequencies extending 7.5 per cent on each side of the center frequencies. Assuming that adequate performance can be obtained by admitting all the frequencies including the third harmonic of the intelligence frequency, then the intelligence frequency varies from 57.5 to 307.5 cps, depending upon the channel used, as shown in Table I.

TABLE I

Channel	Subcarrier	±7.5 per cent	Intelligence Frequency
1	2,300	±172.5	57.5
2	3,000	±225	75
3	3,900	±292.5	97.5
4	5,400	±405	135
5	7,350	±551	183.6
6	12,300	±992.5	307.5

A subminiature telemetering transmitter, consisting of a reactance modulator, master oscillator, and power amplifier, is shown in Fig. 14, and the circuit is given in Fig. 15. The range of this equipment may be increased by means of an auxiliary power amplifier.

A typical receiving station is shown in Fig. 16. For convenience in calibrating the complete system on the mainland, the receiving equipment was installed in a truck. A modified RBF-3 Navy receiver and pano-

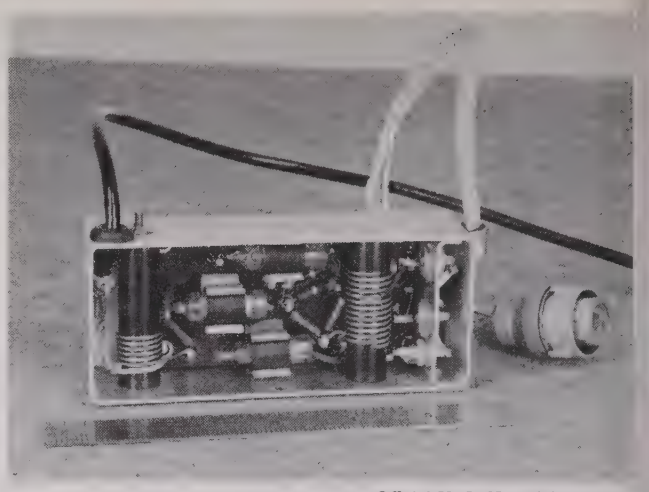

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Fig. 14—Bendix subminiature telemetering transmitter.

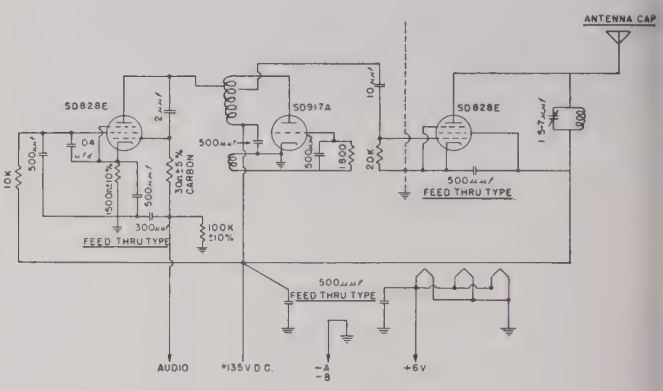

Fig. 15—Schematic of the subminiature telemetering transmitter, consisting of reactance-modulator, master-oscillator and power-amplifier circuits.

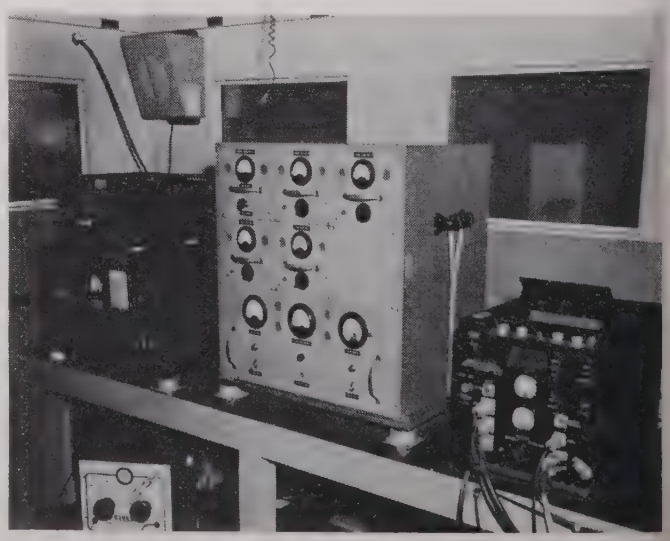

Fig. 16—Truck installation of subcarrier receiving equipment, consisting of FM receiver and panoramiscope, subcarrier filters, audio discriminators, and recording oscillographs.

ramiscope are used with filters and discriminators for the various subcarriers. A fourteen-channel recording oscillograph is used to record the intelligence of the various channels, timing marks, and control signals.

Typical accuracies which may be expected from frequency-modulated multiple subcarrier telemetry are listed in Table II. Improvements in the accuracy of a function being telemetered may be improved by reducing the effects of vibration, acceleration, temperature, and other ambient conditions, particularly on the end instruments. In some instances the added accuracy obtainable by more complex end instruments and transducers cannot be utilized due to space limitations, or if instability results from their use under flight conditions.

TABLE II

ACCURACIES OBTAINED FROM FREQUENCY-MODULATED MULTIPLE SUBCARRIER TELEMETRY

Over-All Accuracy Using Variable-Reactance Transducers:		
Amplitude	2.0	per cent
Acceleration	3.0	per cent
Motion and Position		
Angular	1.0	per cent
Linear	1.0	per cent
Pressure	3.0	per cent
Velocity		
Rotational	0.05	per cent
Reciprocating	0.05	per cent
Over-All Accuracy Using Saturable-Reactance Transducers:		
Strain, Temperature, Voltage, or Current	5.0	per cent
Over-All Accuracy Using Resistance Transducers:		
Add approximately 1 per cent to the end instrument accuracy.		
Accuracies of Typical End Instruments with Resistance Transducers Attached		
Altitude:		
100 ft on 10,000 ft range; 150 ft on 10,000–20,000 ft range; 200 ft on 20,000–35,000 ft range.		
Airspeed:		
3 mph on 500 mph range; 5 mph on 700 mph range.		
Linear Acceleration:		
0.15g on 12g range.		
Angle of Pitch and Yaw Vane Transmitters:		
¼° 45°-0-45°		
Direction Gyros:		
Maximum drift not to exceed 3° in 15 min; 360°-0-360°		

Attitude gyros:		
2 per cent	100°-0-100° roll	70°-0-70° pitch
2 per cent	95°-0- 95° roll	65°-0- 65° pitch
2 per cent	360°-0-360° roll	360°-0-360° pitch

Rate Gyros:		
Rate of roll	1 per cent	0- 90° per sec
	1 per cent	0-180° per sec
	1 per cent	0-270° per sec
Rate of pitch	1 per cent	0- 90° per sec
	1 per cent	0-180° per sec
	1 per cent	0-270° per sec
Rate of yaw	1 per cent	0- 90° per sec
	1 per cent	0-180° per sec
	1 per cent	0-270° per sec

Fluxgate Compass Indicator:	
0.5 per cent	0-360° azimuth
Pressure:	
2.0 per cent	
Flow Rate:	
0.5 per cent	
Fuel Remaining:	
0.5 per cent	
Flow Totalizer:	
0.5 per cent	

MULTIPLEXING SUBCARRIER SYSTEMS

In order to obtain additional telemetered information, several methods may be employed. The number of subcarriers may be increased at the expense of power per channel. It is better from the standpoint of space in the missile, as well as power, to obtain additional information by incremental frequency shift of the subcarrier, or by time division of one or more subcarriers. The former superimposes one function upon another without interrupting the first. Time and frequency information are particularly well adapted to this type of multiplexing. Tachometer indications, for example, may be made to appear as a sinusoidal trace on the oscillograph paper. A displacement in trace position will not change the number of alternations. This shift may be due to the arming of a fuze. In this manner "yes-no" information may be superimposed upon the speed indication. Physically this may be done by using a relay to connect a capacitor across the tank circuit to decrease the frequency. A pronounced and sudden change in amplitude of the trace can convey such information without impairing the usefulness of the original information. It is required that the frequency deviation of the function be limited so that the total does not cause overmodulation. A subminiature installation in which this method was used is shown in Fig. 17. The relay box was mounted on the cover of the box in the upper right. The subcarrier oscillators are shown at the lower right, the roll and pitch gyros with E coils are at the upper left, and the power amplifier with coax from the transmitter is located at the lower left.

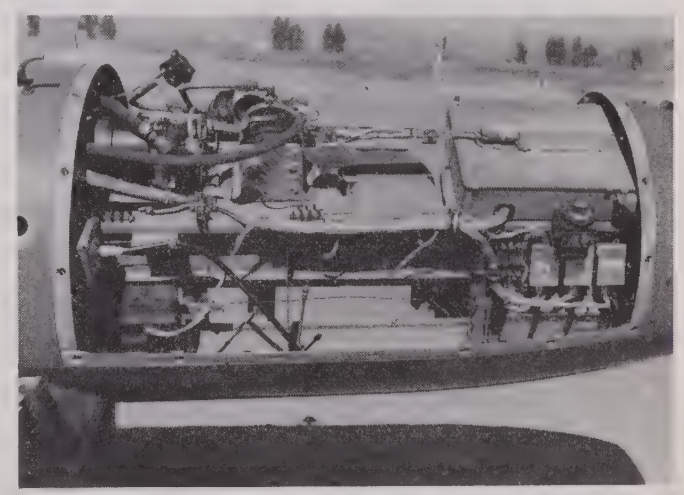

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Fig. 17—Typical installation of subminiature telemetering equipment in KD2C.
Upper left: roll and pitch gyros with mu-metal segments and E coils.
Upper right: relay box for superimposing fixed displacements upon certain channels.
Lower left: power amplifier.
Lower right: six subcarrier oscillators.
Note: standoff insulator at upper left is for control receiver antenna.

Multiplexing by time division is adapted to measurements which do not require a high time resolution, such as result from many mechanical and electrical changes. A simple means of subdividing a channel is by means of a motor-driven switch shown in Fig. 18, which causes

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Fig. 18—Motor-driven multiplexing.

one function to be recorded for the larger part of the cycle, and another to be recorded the smaller part of the time, resulting in short and long trace indications. The difference in dwelling time readily distinguishes each function. The period time is about one-tenth of a second. It is therefore necessary to select functions not subject to more rapid changes. Temperature or other functions not subject to rapid change may be telemetered on a relatively slow divided-time basis such as

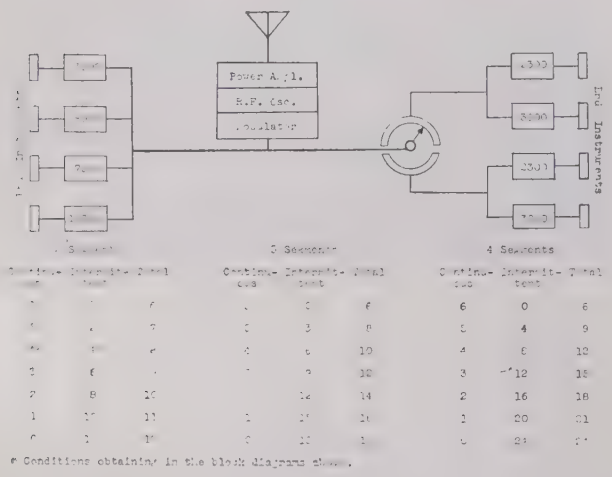

Fig. 19—Subcarrier output multiplexing.

this. Circuitwise this may be accomplished by inserting the motor-driven switch between the end instruments and the oscillator, in which case only one channel is divided between the end instruments. With four end instruments to share a channel, for example, there is less time per instrument than if there were only two end instruments. It is possible that four end instruments have as much time per end instrument as if only two were used, by employing four oscillators on two channels, with one end instrument per oscillator. A two-position switch can be made to select between the outputs of two pairs of oscillators as shown in Fig. 19. One oscillator of each pair would be set for 2300 cps, and the other for 3000 cps. During a part of the time these two and their end instruments would be connected, and during the remainder of the time the other 2300 cps and 3000 cps oscillators and their particular end instruments would be connected to the modulator. A difference in dwelling time or of spacing is necessary to distinguish between pairs. This method is extremely simple, but involves dividing time on more than one channel.

A multisegment, motor-driven switch, spoken of as a commutator, provides another means of dividing the time of a channel. The various end instruments would connect to their respective segments. The commutated channel thus provides many sources of information, not all of which are available for end instruments, since reference voltages are transmitted for calibration purposes, where voltage variations in flight would be reflected in accuracy. Timing pulses are also transmitted and are particularly necessary for the establishment of the proper time sequencing of the recordings of the several receiving stations as the missile comes into the effective range of each. At this activity a low-speed 24-segment commutator has been developed in which the

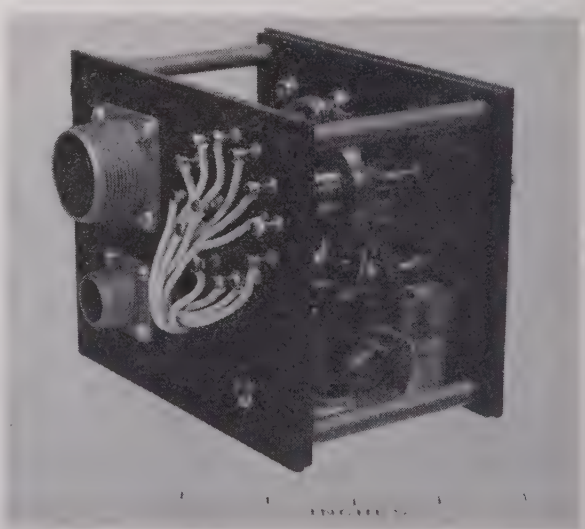

Fig. 20—Low-speed commutator with high duty cycle.

dwelling time is nine times the transfer time. A Geneva movement was used in this commutator, shown in Fig. 20, in order to obtain this ratio. In Fig. 21 is shown

a higher-speed mechanical commutator which is driven at 5 revolutions per second. With 30 segments, this represents a total of 150 samplings per second. Since this number imposes more stringent bandwidth requirements, it is generally used on the 7350 or 12,300 cps subcarrier frequencies where the bandwidths are adequate for this commutator. If more than five samplings per second are desired of a particular function, the number may be increased by utilizing more segments, at the expense of the number of functions to be telemetered. For example, if segments number one and number sixteen are multiplied, ten samplings per second result, but one less function can be telemetered. If numbers one, eleven, and twenty-one are multipled, then fifteen samplings per second are obtained of this function, and at the expense of two functions.

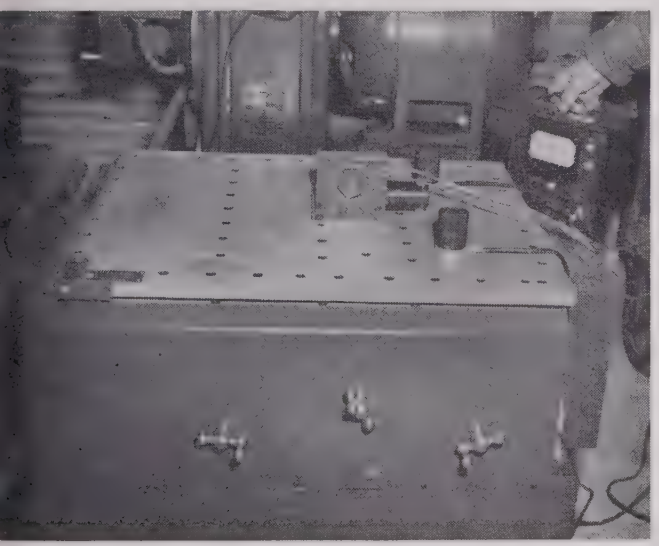

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Fig. 21—Experimental high-duty-cycle commutator being subjected to vibration tests.

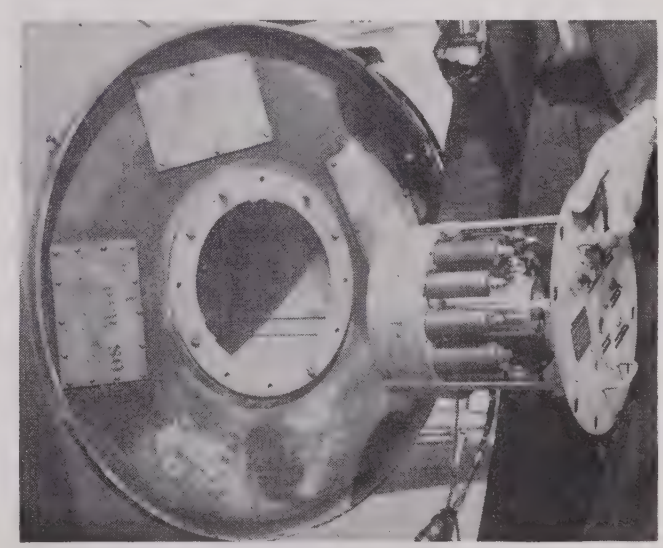
Avenues for the improvement of mechanical commutation have by no means been exhausted. Some work has been done with electronic commutation arrangements, but this is in the experimental stage.

Pulse Systems

Pulse systems are fundamentally based upon time division, characterized by pulses of high amplitude and with one-half to two microseconds duration. Also, a synchronizing means must be supplied. Because of the comparatively long intervals between pulses, some pulse systems are capable of expansion or contraction into a greater or lesser number of channels. Pulse systems are numerous and varied.

Pulse-position modulation apparently offers the most encouragement for missile work. Once during each period each channel is sampled. The channel pulses are advanced or retarded about their quiescent positions due to modulation. The amount of advancement or retardation is dependent upon the amplitude and polarity of the input voltage at the instant each sample is taken. The input frequency determines the rate at which the pulses corresponding to a given channel vary from the quiescent position. The maximum change in pulse position must be limited to prevent adjacent channels from overlapping, and to reduce crosstalk. If each channel occupies 10 degrees, a total of thirty-five channels excluding the sync channel are obtained. With a one-half microsecond pulse length and a sampling time of twenty times this amount, the time per channel is 10 microseconds, and a maximum sampling rate of 2777 samplings per second would result. A greater pulse length would result in a lower sampling rate. Many ways of producing pulse-position modulation are possible; however, the method should be precise so that random errors in pulse position would be minimized.

An experimental transmitter is shown in Fig. 22. The power supply for this transmitter is somewhat larger and heavier than the transmitter itself. Potentiometer-type transducers are employed with this equipment. A similar type of pulse telemetering is described by Heeren, Hoeppner, Kauke, Lichtman, and Schifflett.[1]



Official U. S. Navy Photograph

Fig. 22—Experimental pulse-position telemetering transmitter and location within KUW.

The principal difficulty with pulse-position systems has been their dependence upon absolute timing circuits. This has been improved by causing each channel to assume a fixed relative position with respect to the others. It is not necessary to break a cycle down into eight parts directly (from a delay line, for example), since phase-doubling transformation can be used to obtain eight phase displacements from an original four. This is analogous to the use of transformers to convert

[1] V. L. Heeren, C. H. Hoeppner, J. R. Kauke, S. W. Lichtman, and P. R. Shifflett "Telemetering from V-2 rockets," *Electronics*, vol. 20, pp. 100–107; March, 1947.

three-phase power to six-phase power. With the eighth channel used for synchronizing pulses, seven channels therefore result. Thirty-five channels would result from the breakdown of a cycle into 10-degree samplings.

In another pulse-position system, a subcarrier transducer system is employed in order to make it unnecessary to introduce reference level markers. The quiescent frequency of the subcarrier rather than the quiescent time position of the pulse determines zero level. The time interval between the marker pulse and each channel pulse is varied at an audio rate by the incoming signal from the transducer. The oscillator-frequency output is then used to modulate a channel whose pulse output is transmitted, received, and demodulated to produce the original signal. When it is desired to telemeter a voltage, it can control the frequency of the oscillator directly, just as is the case with frequency-modulated subcarrier systems employing phase-shift oscillators. Beyond this the similarity between these types of systems ends.

Restrictions imposed by security regulations prohibit a complete discussion of Navy pulse telemetering systems.

Conclusions

Numerous telemetering systems have been proposed, and a number have been built which are as different as the functions to be telemetered.

Telemetering systems may be compared on the basis of several factors:

Bandwidth is only a factor when the end instruments and transducers warrant an equally high time resolution.

With a number of island stations, range is not as important as reliability with various missile attitudes.

Reliability is a factor which is based largely upon the number of links in the chain of circuits.

Speed in equipping and calibrating before flight is important in a test program, and depends largely upon the number of items which can go wrong.

In small target pilotless aircraft, space is a particularly critical factor, and the volume of the equipment depends again upon the number of circuits, power, and number of functions to be telemetered.

The time required to make an installation, and the cost of the telemetering installation, is largely a function of the number of functions to be telemetered; however this cost is low compared to the missile which is expended in a test flight. A failure of the telemetering results in the waste of a large sum because of the loss of the necessary data, necessitating the complete conditioning and instrumenting of another missile.

A Waveguide Bridge for Measuring Gain at 4000 Mc*

A. L. SAMUEL†, fellow, ire, and C. F. CRANDELL‡, member, ire

Summary—**A bridge has been constructed for measuring the gain and phase delay of amplifiers in the vicinity of 4000 Mc. The equipment is described, and the methods employed to reduce the possible errors are discussed. The general method may be adapted for use in any desired frequency range.**

Bridge circuits, although much used at lower frequencies, have not been applied to any great extent at the high radio frequencies. The present paper describes a waveguide bridge which has been constructed to measure gain (or loss) and phase delay of devices at frequencies in the vicinity of 4000 Mc. The general method consists in comparing the output of the device under test to its input by means of a null balance. As in any ac bridge, this balance involves both amplitude and phase. The amplitude balance is obtained by varying a calibrated attenuator, the calibration giving the gain directly. Phase balance is obtained by moving the position of a pickup point on a standing wave detector, the distance by which this point must be moved when the amplifier is replaced by a passive circuit of known characteristics (usually a short section of waveguide) being a measure of the phase shift. Balance is indicated by a null observation on a cathode ray oscilloscope which simultaneously presents the output versus frequency characteristic of the amplifier on a second trace.

* Decimal classification: R255.11. Original manuscript received by the Institute, December 1, 1947. Presented, 1948 IRE National Convention, March 24, 1948, New York, N. Y.

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General Explanation

A photograph of the complete bridge is shown in Fig. 1. It consists of (1) the high-frequency oscillator and driving amplifier with their coaxial-line connections located on the extreme upper right corner of the bench and partly obscured by the waveguide assembly; (2) the waveguide assembly which constitutes the bridge proper; and (3) the associated power supplies, monitoring circuits and switching circuits, etc., which are mounted on the racks to the right and left and on the shelf above the waveguide unit.

Fig. 1—The complete bridge assembly with all auxiliary equipment and power supplies.

The waveguide section only is shown in greater detail in Fig. 2. Power from the high-frequency oscillator, shown in the upper right with its motor modulating device, is supplied to the driving amplifier (partially hidden by the waveguide assembly) by means of a flexible coaxial cable and from there to the input of the waveguide which is located just outside the picture to the right. The unseen portion of guide to the right contains wave meters and an impedance-matching unit. Entering the visible portion of rectangular waveguide from the right, the first unit encountered is an input attenuator (with circular dial), then the input directional coupler (the three-tier guide section), where samples of input power and input reflected power are obtained. The amplifier under test is in the center foreground between the input directional coupler to its right and a similar output directional coupler to its left. The traveling probe of the standing-wave detector, with its flexible coaxial output, is seen behind the amplifier. The calibrated attenuator with its dial indicator (white faced) can be seen in the waveguide section between the output directional coupler and the traveling probe.

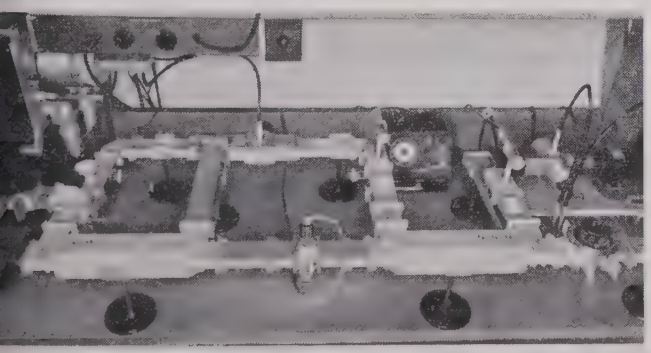

Fig. 2—The waveguide bridge proper showing the arrangement of the parts.

Measurement of Gain

A simplified schematic of the bridge is shown in Fig. 3. The wave pattern existing in the section of guide containing the traveling probe can be considered as resulting from two independent waves. One of these, proportional to the input power to the amplifier under test, is traveling to the right, while the other is proportional to the output power, and is traveling to the left. If the loss introduced by attenuator No. 1 is exactly equal to the gain introduced by the amplifier (assuming the directional couplers to be identical), the amplitudes of these two wave components will be equal, producing a resulting standing-wave pattern with a series of nodes. A null balance can therefore be obtained by moving the pickup probe along the slotted section to one of these nodal points, and by a critical adjustment of the attenuator.

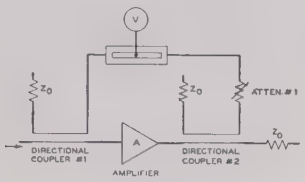

Fig. 3—A simplified schematic of the bridge illustrating the basic principle.

It should be noted that this bridge compares the forward power in the input line with the forward power in the output line. The bridge, therefore, measures gain defined as the ratio of the power impressed on the output line to the power impressed on the input to the amplifier. The actual power delivered to a useful load may be reduced by an impedance mismatch, and the power absorbed by the amplifier input may be similarly reduced by an input mismatch. Measurements made under mismatch conditions must be properly interpreted, but they are otherwise perfectly valid. However, it is customary to make gain measurements under matched conditions where the distinctions between available power, impressed power, and absorbed power are of no consequence.

Although the circuit shown in Fig. 3 is perfectly usable for the measurement of gain on an unmodulated cw basis, the measurement is greatly facilitated by the use of a frequency-modulated source which, in effect, periodically sweeps the frequency of the high-frequency oscillator through the pass range of the amplifier. By means of a synchronous switch the oscillator is turned off for every alternate half cycle of the frequency excursion, so that the frequency sweep is unidirectional. The off period also provides a zero reference line on the oscilloscope. Under these conditions it is possible to observe the band-pass characteristics of the amplifier as a function of frequency. By means of a channel switch one may view this band-pass characteristic on the oscilloscope at the same time that the oscilloscope is being used to observe the null balance of the bridge. Of course this balance will now occur at only a single frequency (within the range being swept) for which the gain and phase setting are correct.

Fig. 4 is a schematic drawing of the complete bridge circuit. It includes the frequency-modulated source, together with a number of additional features which have

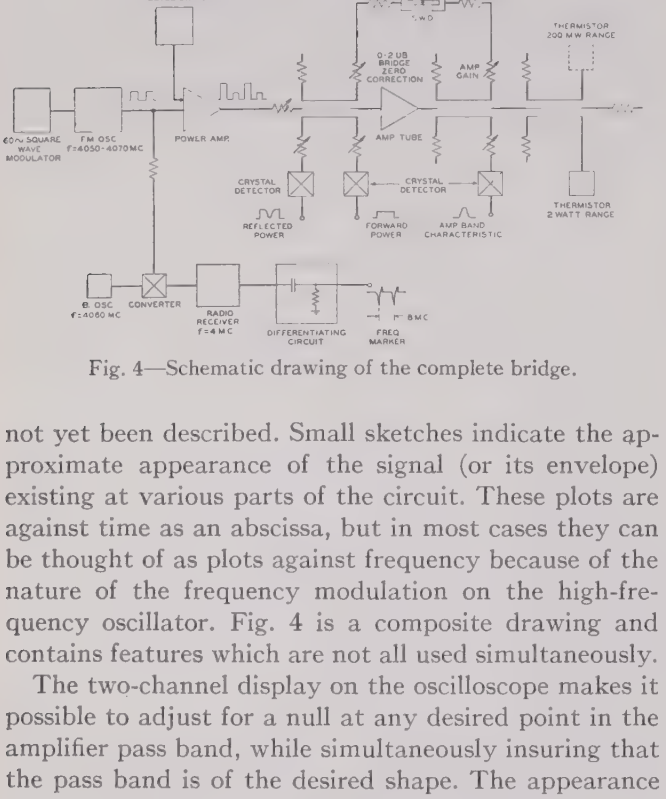

Fig. 4—Schematic drawing of the complete bridge.

not yet been described. Small sketches indicate the approximate appearance of the signal (or its envelope) existing at various parts of the circuit. These plots are against time as an abscissa, but in most cases they can be thought of as plots against frequency because of the nature of the frequency modulation on the high-frequency oscillator. Fig. 4 is a composite drawing and contains features which are not all used simultaneously.

The two-channel display on the oscilloscope makes it possible to adjust for a null at any desired point in the amplifier pass band, while simultaneously insuring that the pass band is of the desired shape. The appearance of the oscilloscope is indicated in Fig. 5. One trace

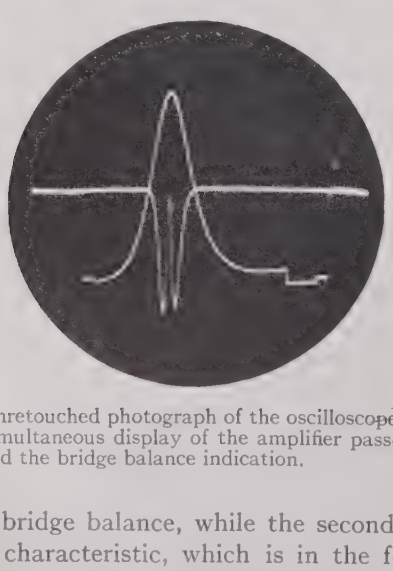

Fig. 5—An unretouched photograph of the oscilloscope screen showing the simultaneous display of the amplifier pass-band characteristic and the bridge balance indication.

shows the bridge balance, while the second shows the pass-band characteristic, which is in the form of the usual resonance curve. Both curves are plotted against a common abscissa scale proportional to frequency. The null point is the center point of the "W" where it comes into alignment with the horizontal zero lines. The amplitude rises rapidly for frequencies to either side of the balance. A narrow-band amplifier is used in the bridge output channel to prevent overloading at far off-balance frequencies, thus giving the "W"-shaped pattern. This enables one to operate the bridge under conditions of maximum sensitivity. The location of the null point along the abscissa scale corresponding to the maximum output on the other trace indicates that the gain is being measured at this point in the pass band.

Gain Measurement Errors

Reflections in the balancing arm of the bridge will introduce an error in the measurement of gain. If the directional couplers, their terminations, and the waveguide components, particularly the elbows, are not all properly matched in impedance, reflections of one wave component will be added to the other wave component in random phases, depending upon the exact locations and magnitudes of the discontinuities which produce them. Furthermore, the relative phases between the output wave sample and the input wave sample, and hence the relative phases between the direct waves and the additive reflected-wave components, will depend upon the exact phase delay through the amplifier under test and upon the frequency. The balance obtained under these conditions is dependent upon these reflections in a complicated way, and an error is introduced which cannot be allowed for in the calibration. Instead, this error must be reduced to a tolerable value. Care was exercised in the construction of the individual circuit components and, in addition, they were all individually trimmed to match the impedance of the standard waveguide. Adjustment screws opposite the slots of the directional couplers (the top ones being visible in Fig. 2), were used to compensate for the reflection caused by these slots. The elbows were designed to be reasonably well matched, with the final trimming being provided by tuning plugs. The terminations were of a design which matched the waveguide with little or no trimming. In spite of all possible precautions of this sort it was not found possible to adjust the individual components to much better than 0.1 db standing-wave ratio over the desired frequency band. Since there are a relatively large number of these discontinuities in the system, the over-all error could easily reach 1 db or more. The effect of these discontinuities was further reduced by introducing 10-db attenuating pads on each side of the slotted section, as shown in Fig. 4. Because of these pads, the output signal sample on the input side of the slotted section is reduced in level by 20 db, with respect to the level of the input signal sample at this same location. The input signal sample is similarly reduced by 20 db, with respect to the output signal sample on the output side of the slotted section. This reduces the effective size of the reflected signals by 20 db, and greatly improves the accuracy of the bridge. The attenuating pads themselves must not introduce serious reflections; the pads actually used were somewhat better than 0.1 db

ver the necessary band. The maximum error from this ource is probably well under 0.2 db.

Errors in the measurement of phase will occur as a esult of differences in the lengths of the waveguide aths traversed by the input and output wave samples, nd because of the variations in phase delay through the alibrated attenuator. No serious attempt has yet been nade to evaluate or reduce this type of error.

Measurement of Compression

An additional power amplifier, as shown in Fig. 4, is f value when one desires to study compression; that is, he variation in gain with power level. It cannot be used f one wishes to examine the pass-band characteristic f the amplifier tube under test because of the effect f its own relatively narrow pass band on the resulting icture. This driver amplifier can be arranged so that ts output is switched at a 30-cps rate between two ifferent power levels, which may be adjusted so that he power output from the tube under test is in turn lternated between two desired levels, say 1.0 watt and .1 watt. It is, of course, necessary to remove the fre- uency modulation on the high-frequency oscillator and o operate the amplifier on a cw basis, in order to meas- re the output power levels by the thermistor watt- neter and to adjust the drive to the desired values. After this has been done, the frequency modulation can hen be restored for the gain measurements. By ap- ropriate switching means, it is possible to observe the ridge balance signals corresponding to the two different evels, simultaneously, each on a separate oscillograph race. If there is any difference in the tube gain at these wo power levels, only one of the traces can be made to alance at a time. The amount by which the "*Amp. Gain*" attenuator must be changed to obtain a balance n the second trace is a measure of the compression be- ween these two power levels. The ability to measure he difference in gain between the two power levels while he tube is being alternately pulsed between these two evels eliminates errors due to drifts in adjustment and o long-time variations in gain caused by heating ef- ects. Changes in gain can be measured to an accuracy f the order of 0.1 db by this method, even though the bsolute accuracy of the bridge is probably no better han 0.2 db.

Measurement of Bandwidth

Bandwidth measurements are made by employing the ircuit shown on the bottom of Fig. 4 to provide two requency-marker pips which can be switched on one hannel of the 'scope at the same time that the pass-band haracteristic is being presented on the other channel. The appearance of these marker pips is illustrated in Fig. 6, where they are shown together with the pass- band characteristic of the amplifier. These pips are eparately adjustable as to amplitude, mean frequency, and frequency spread, so that it is relatively easy to measure the difference in frequency between any two desired points on the pattern, say between the 3-db-down points. The calibration of the ordinate scale on the pass-band characteristic may be made in terms of a calibrated attenuator in the output circuit.

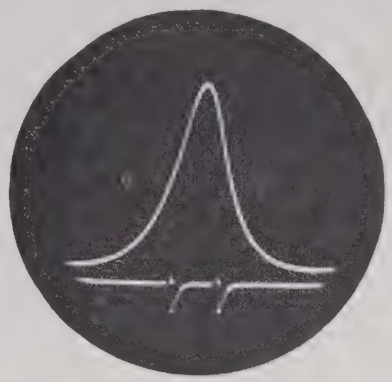

Fig. 6—The frequency marker pips as they appear when viewed with the amplifier pass-band characteristic.

Signal Monitors

The bridge is arranged to furnish, in addition to the amplifier output, two other monitoring signals which come from crystals connected to either end of the top deck of the input directional coupler. They are schematically shown in Fig. 4, where they are labeled "*Reflected Power*" and "*Forward Power*." The signal from the "*Forward Power*" crystal represents the power supplied to the bridge from the FM oscillator. When the oscillator and bridge are properly adjusted, this signal is a pulse of constant amplitude (with the reference zero

Fig. 7—The input reflected-power pattern of an amplifier, shown with the amplifier pass band.

line at each end) but of varying frequency. If the input level is not constant, an error will be introduced in the bandwidth measurements. By having the "*Forward Power*" monitor built into the bridge circuit, it is pos-

sible at any time to check the adjustment of the oscillator and the bridge circuits.

The appearance of the "*Reflected Power*" pattern from an amplifier with the input circuit tuned to match the impedance of the waveguide at center frequency is shown in Fig. 7 (with the transmission pass-band characteristic on the other channel). This pattern provides a very quick method of adjusting the input to the amplifier, since the effects of mistuning and mismatching can be easily seen separated, and without regard to the adjustment of the output circuit. With the input circuit properly adjusted, it then becomes a simple matter to adjust the output circuit for maximum gain. This method is considerably faster than the method of tuning both circuits simultaneously with the output as the only indication, since there may be no visible output signal if the cavities are far out of tune and it then becomes a matter of trial and error to determine the correct adjustment.

The Radio-Frequency Oscillator

The FM oscillator shown in Fig. 8 consists of an experimental oscillator tube in a wide-range cavity. The

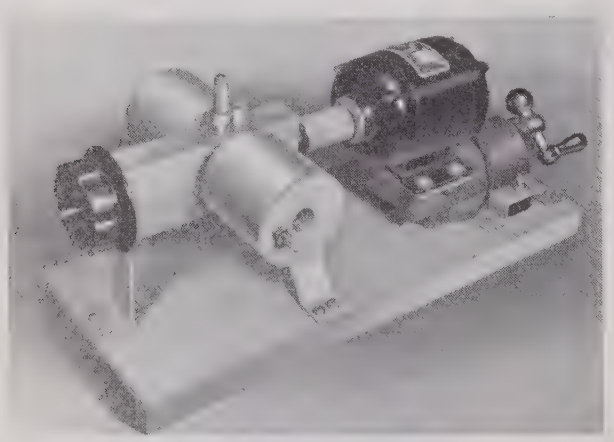

Fig. 8—The FM oscillator.

mean frequency of this oscillator is determined by the position of a movable piston in one end of the resonant cavity, while the periodic variations in frequency are produced by a paddle (shown in detail in Fig. 9) which is driven by a synchronous motor. This oscillator will tune from 6.8 to 8.1 cm.

At 4000 Mc, the frequency where the bridge is normally used, the oscillator output can be adjusted to be constant to within 0.2 db over a frequency swing of 50 Mc. By introducing an alternating voltage in the power supply, it is possible to increase the frequency sweep to 600 Mc with not too great a sacrifice in constancy of output. A Western Electric D-168479 relay operating at a 60-cps rate is used to supply the oscillator with a square-wave input voltage.

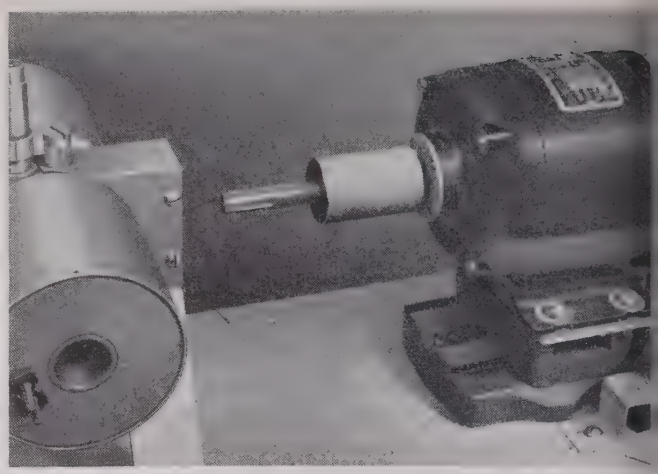

Fig. 9—The paddle used in the oscillator of Fig. 8 to produce the frequency variation.

The Channel Switch

A relay circuit provides the desired synchronou switching between any two selected channels. This re lay is driven by a 30-cps vacuum-tube oscillato which is synchronized by its 60-cps plate supply. Thi arrangement is much superior to an electronic switcl which was originally used, and which was unsatisfactor at 30 cps because of its poor low-frequency response A balance control provides for the injection of a smal variable dc voltage of either sign into one of the tw relay signal channels to displace one trace on the oscil loscope with respect to the other. A bank of six inpu terminals and input potentiometers, and the associate switches, enable one to select the desired pairs of sig nal channels for simultaneous observation.

Acknowledgment

The construction of this waveguide bridge was orig iginally undertaken after its feasibility had become ap parent through discussion held between the writers J. W. Clark, A. F. Fox, and W. W. Mumford. Thes individuals, and others, contributed a number of usefu ideas which have been incorporated into the bridge i its final form. L. E. Cheesman assisted in the design construction, and testing of many of the bridge com ponents.

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A High-Level Single-Sideband Transmitter*

OSWALD G. VILLARD, JR.†, ASSOCIATE, IRE

Summary—Double-sideband suppressed-carrier signals can be enerated with relatively high efficiency at high power levels in id-modulated balanced modulators so biased that very little plate rrent flows in the absence of audio input. When tubes having a nstant-current characteristic are used, and the necessary quadra-re phase shift between pairs of audio- and radio-frequency excita-on voltages exists, two high-power balanced modulators of this pe may be connected to a common output circuit to produce sup-essed-carrier single-sideband signals. The peak efficiency of the mbination for sinusoidal modulation is $\pi/4$ times or 78 per cent that otainable when the same tubes are used as linear amplifiers. Op-rating adjustments are shown to be straightforward. The simplici- and power economy of this circuit make it attractive for those plications where moderately low distortion and reasonably good jection of the undesired sideband are satisfactory.

THE ADVANTAGES of single-sideband radiotelephone transmission in terms of bandwidth and power requirements have been understood for any years. However, difficulties of single-sideband eneration and reception have so far prevented the eneral use of this system except in cases of absolute ecessity, such as radiotelephony below 100 kc, carrier-rrent communication, or long-distance multichannel ort-wave telephone transmission.

The classical method of producing single-sideband gnals, employing sharp filters, balanced modulators, nd frequency changers, is undeniably complex, and oes not lend itself readily to incorporation in radio-elephone equipment where flexibility in operation, as ell as ease in adjustment and maintenance, are im-ortant.

The phase-rotation method of single-sideband gen-ation, in which two sets of carrierless double side-ands are combined in such a way that the undesired pper or lower sideband is cancelled out, is funda-entally simpler (now that practical 90-degree audio hase-shift networks are available[1]), but in the systems far disclosed[2–4] linear amplification is required in rder to achieve the desired output power level.

It is the purpose of this paper to describe a trans-itter of the phase-rotation type in which the single deband is generated at high level and good efficiency irectly in the final stage. The rf circuitry and circuit djustments have been reduced to a minimum. The esult is a transmitter which is scarcely more compli-cated or more difficult to adjust than the conventional plate-modulated one, which produces its output at an efficiency closely approaching that of a linear amplifier, and which gives reasonably good suppression of the undesired sideband together with moderately low distortion.

A block diagram of the basic method is shown in Fig. 1. Two balanced modulators, excited by rf voltages 90° out of phase, and by af voltages in phase quadrature, are connected directly to a common output circuit. Four tubes having a substantially constant-current characteristic are used, so that the amplitude and phase of their plate-current pulses is determined only by excitation and modulation voltages, and is independent of the loading and the tuning of the output circuit. The tubes are so

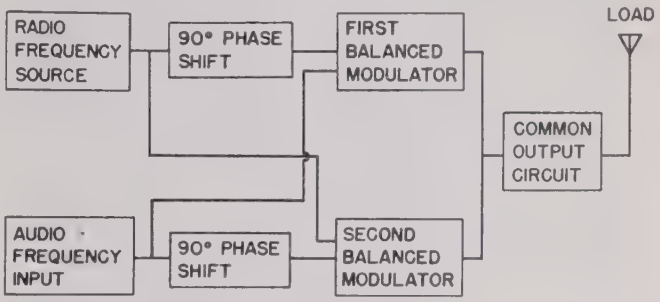

Fig. 1—Block diagram of sideband-cancellation method.

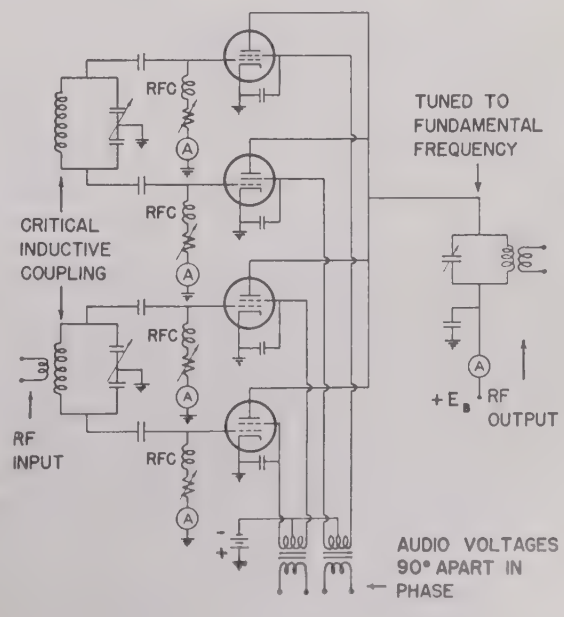

Fig. 2—Schematic of twin balanced modulator.

* Decimal classification: R423.52. Original manuscript received by e Institute, April 6, 1948; revised manuscript received, June 28, 948.

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biased that very little plate current is drawn in the absence of an audio signal. The combination might be called a "twin balanced modulator." The schematic of a practical circuit is shown in Fig. 2.

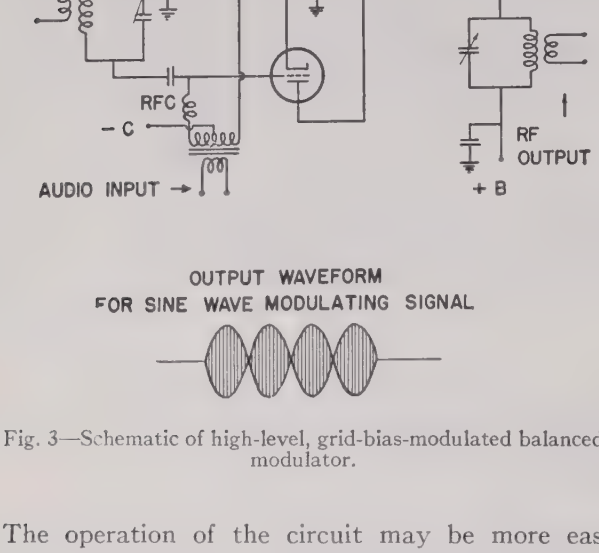


Fig. 3—Schematic of high-level, grid-bias-modulated balanced modulator.

The operation of the circuit may be more easily visualized after a review of the mathematical and vector relationships involved. The equation of the output of an ordinary balanced modulator (see Fig. 3) may be written as:

$$e = m \sin 2\pi ft \cos 2\pi f_s t \qquad (1)$$

where

e = instantaneous amplitude of the wave
m = a constant proportional to the amplitude of the modulating wave, i.e., degree of modulation
f_s = modulating (or audio) frequency
f = radio (or carrier) frequency.

This equation may be thought of as representing a wave of carrier frequency whose instantaneous amplitude is proportional to the cosine of the angle of the modulating wave. When this angle is in the second and third quadrants, its cosine is negative, and the phase of the wave of carrier frequency changes by 180°. We therefore have an rf wave which starts out from zero with given rf phase, builds up sinusoidally to a maximum, and then returns to zero again in the first half of the af cycle. This process is repeated in the second half, but the phase of the rf wave is reversed.

Cancellation of the undesired sideband in a double balanced modulator may be shown as follows. Equation (1) can be expanded to:

$$e = \frac{m}{2} [\sin 2\pi(f + f_s)t + \sin 2\pi(f - f_s)t]. \qquad (2)$$

Now the output of a second balanced modulator, fed by a rf voltage 90° out of phase with that of the first as well as an af voltage in quadrature with that of the first, has the form:

$$e = m \cos 2\pi ft \sin 2\pi f_s t \qquad (3$$

which, when expanded, is

$$e = \frac{m}{2} [\sin 2\pi(f + f_s)t - \sin 2\pi(f - f_s)t]. \qquad (4$$

It will be seen that, when (2) and (4) are added, the difference-frequency sidebands cancel, while the sum frequency sidebands add. The opposite result may be obtained by reversing the phase of either the rf voltage or the af voltage fed to one of the balanced modulators.

The two voltages of (1) and (3) (the rf outputs of the two balanced modulators) may be represented vectorially as in Fig. 4. The dotted vectors E_A and E_B represen

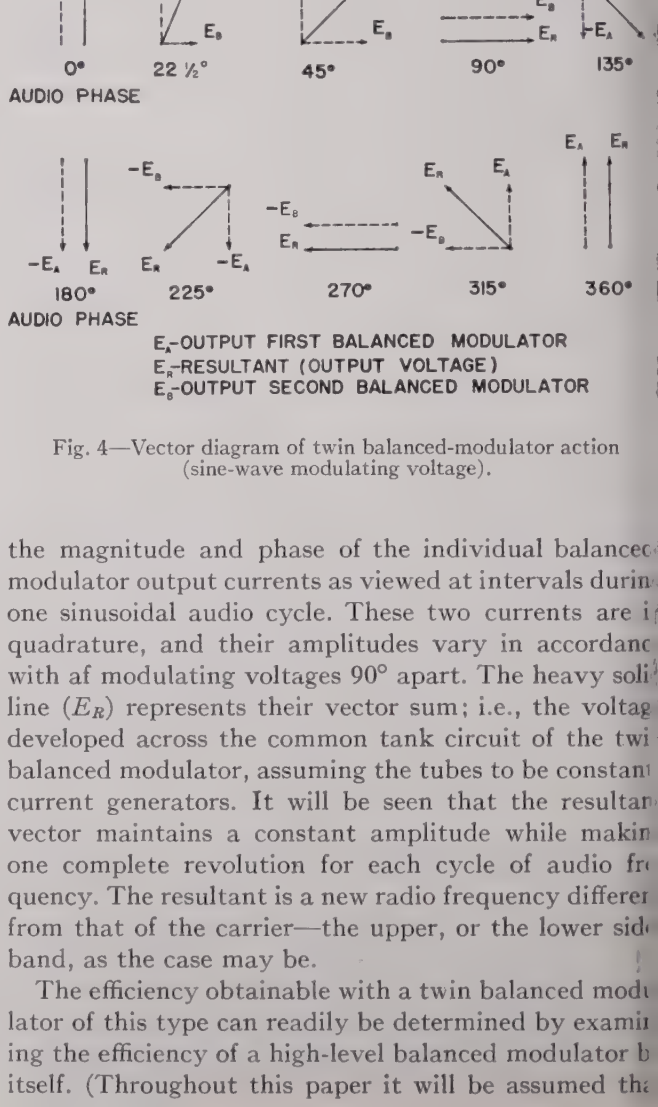


Fig. 4—Vector diagram of twin balanced-modulator action (sine-wave modulating voltage).

the magnitude and phase of the individual balanced modulator output currents as viewed at intervals during one sinusoidal audio cycle. These two currents are in quadrature, and their amplitudes vary in accordance with af modulating voltages 90° apart. The heavy solid line (E_R) represents their vector sum; i.e., the voltage developed across the common tank circuit of the twin balanced modulator, assuming the tubes to be constant current generators. It will be seen that the resultant vector maintains a constant amplitude while making one complete revolution for each cycle of audio frequency. The resultant is a new radio frequency different from that of the carrier—the upper, or the lower sideband, as the case may be.

The efficiency obtainable with a twin balanced modulator of this type can readily be determined by examining the efficiency of a high-level balanced modulator by itself. (Throughout this paper it will be assumed tha

he modulating voltage is a single-frequency wave.) Consider the circuit of Fig. 3. It is assumed that a steady f input signal is applied, and that the tubes are so iased that no plate current flows in the absence of mod-lation. In the course of one cycle of modulation, the ubes alternately deliver their maximum power output o the common tank circuit, under conditions exactly he same as those obtaining at the positive crest of the nodulating cycle in an ordinary grid-modulated ampli-er. Let the peak efficiency at this point in the cycle be alled η. The envelope of the balanced-modulator out-ut is shown in Fig. 3. The average rf output is exactly .5 times the peak output power P_m, since the output oltage has the form of a series of half sine waves, and he average of a series of half sine waves squared is one-alf the peak value. The peak dc input power P_{in} equals he peak output power P_m divided by the peak effi-ency, namely, P_m/η. If the dc plate voltage is E_b, the eak dc plate current must be $P_m/\eta E_b$. Now the wave-orm of the dc input current is exactly the same as that f the rf output envelope—a series of half sine waves hose average is $2/\pi$ or 0.636 times their peak value. herefore, the average dc input current is $2/\pi$ times the eak current, or $2P_m/\pi\eta E_b$. The efficiency, or average utput power divided by average input power, is then .5 $P_m/(2P_mE_b/\pi\eta E_b) = \pi\eta/4$. For $\eta = 0.66$, the efficiency 52 per cent.

This is, of course, only true at full output, correspond-ng to complete modulation with a single-frequency one. As with any grid-modulated or linear amplifier, he efficiency of a single or twin balanced modulator for sser amplitudes is proportional to the amplitude of he modulating signal.

It is interesting to note that the efficiency of the twin alanced modulator is exactly equal to that of one high-vel balanced modulator by itself. Since the dc plate urrent drawn by the tubes is independent of the rf late voltage in the common tank circuit, the input ower drawn by the two balanced modulators is exactly vice that drawn by one. The combined average out-ut power, on the other hand, is equal to the peak ower developed by each component balanced modu-tor (as may be seen in Fig. 4), or twice the average ower output of each balanced modulator alone. There-re, the efficiency of the pair is equal to that of its com-onents, or 0.785η.

Since the circuit is symmetrical, each tube dissipates n its plate one-fourth the total power lost. This means hat, for full utilization of tube plate dissipation ca-acity, somewhat higher operating voltages may be used han are customary for a single tube in class-C amplifier ervice.

Screen-grid modulation, with this circuit, offers the reatest ease in adjustment, and is therefore to be pre-rred. Where the saving in audio power or voltage re-uired for screen modulation outweighs a considerable ncrease in the complexity of adjustment, control-grid nodulation may be used. Plate modulation is not satis-factory, because at one point in the audio cycle the two tubes must operate with equal dc plate voltages of 0.707 of maximum, yet must produce a combined rf output of 1.0 times the maximum. To support this output, the instantaneous voltage at the tube plates would have to swing negative during the rf cycle at a time when plate current would normally be flowing, even when the various phase relationships are taken into account. Suppressor-grid modulation will also be found to be unsatisfactory; although it can be used, screen current and dissipation are high when the suppressor grid is biased to cutoff, thus preventing full utilization of tube capacity.

The steady dc grid-current flow, which is present with screen modulation, greatly facilitates setting the 90° phase shift between rf voltages applied to the two component balanced modulators of the twin balanced modulator. The two grid tuned circuits of the two pairs of tubes in Fig. 2 may be inductively coupled together, and excitation fed to one. When the secondary circuit is tuned to resonance, (as evidenced by maximum grid current) a 90° phase shift exists between the voltage across this circuit and that of the primary. By adjusting for critical coupling, the magnitudes of these voltages are made equal, so that all four tubes receive the same excitation. Somewhat less than the normal class-C grid excitation may be applied, the exact amount depending on the operating conditions chosen.

The screen grids must be given a slight negative bias in order to prevent excessive plate-current flow in the absence of an audio signal. The exact amount is dependent on the tube characteristics, the rf drive applied to the control grids of the tubes, and on the plate voltage. The correct value is not especially critical and may readily be found in practice. A no-signal plate current of roughly one-tenth the full-output plate current is generally satisfactory.

The question of sideband suppression, and the various circuit adjustments necessary to maintain it, are considered next. First, it should be observed that high-level balanced modulators are inherently "balanced," insofar as carrier suppression is concerned. Since the tubes are biased nearly to cutoff, virtually nothing will be radiated until an audio signal is applied. In cases where complete and automatic suppression of the carrier during quiet intervals is desired, this feature is very convenient; however, it is obvious that, if the circuit is not properly adjusted, the carrier will reappear along with any sideband output.

Suppression of the undesired sideband, in any sideband cancellation system, is dependent on the accuracy of setting of both the rf and the af phases. Since this suppression depends on the difference between large quantities, it will always be difficult to maintain completely in practice. The situation for a misadjustment of either rf or af phase by itself is illustrated in Fig. 5. The voltages e_1 and e_2 represent the two upper or the two lower sidebands, whichever are to be cancelled. If it is

assumed that these voltages are equal in magnitude, R, their resultant, equals $2e_1 \sin \alpha/2$ where α is the angle by which either the rf or the af phase differs from 90°. The ratio of the desired sideband (very nearly $2e_1$) to this undesired resultant is approximately $2e_1/2e_1 \sin \alpha/2$, or $115/\alpha$, where α is small and is expressed in degrees. (α may, of course, be considered to be the algebraic sum of rf and af phase deviations.) It is seen that when $\alpha = 1°$, the ratio of desired to undesired sideband is

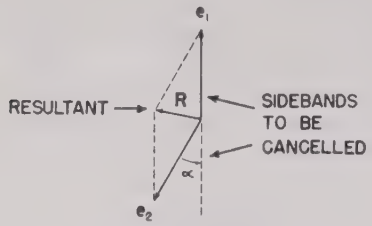


Fig. 5—Effect of rf or af phase angle on sideband cancellation.

roughly 40 db. This ratio drops to 20 db when α becomes approximately 10°. The necessity for close control of phase is clear.

A simple audio phase-shift network of the sort shown in Fig. 6 (taken from footnote reference 1) provides a

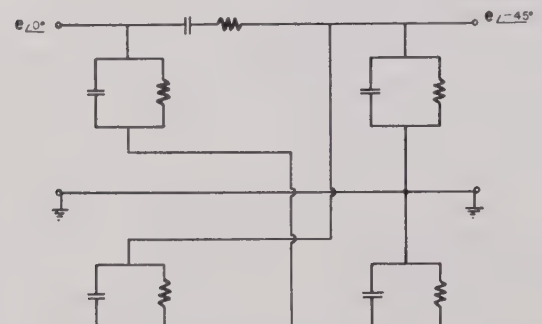


Fig. 6—Sample 90° wideband audio phase shift network (as shown in footnote reference 1).

phase shift departing from 90° by no more than 5° over the range 200–3000 cps. Over appreciable portions of the range, the phase characteristic is within 2°.

By way of comparison, assuming the phase settings to be perfect, if one of the sidebands to be cancelled is 11 per cent larger than the other, the ratio of desired to undesired sideband is nearly 25 db. Thus, a given inaccuracy in phase setting is slightly more serious than a given inaccuracy in relative magnitude.

Presence of any sizeable amount of the undesired sideband shows up as a distortion of the envelope of the combined output, when the audio input is a sine wave. The undesired frequency component in the output combines with the desired sideband and causes the envelope of the combination to have a "modulation," or ripple whose frequency is twice that of the audio modulating frequency. Small inaccuracies in either magnitude or phase setting (af or rf) produce ripples nearly identical in appearance, since in each case the effect of the misadjustment is to permit some undesired sideband to appear as a result of incomplete cancellation.

This ripple may conveniently be used to find the correct rf phase setting. Assuming the audio phase shift to be correct, the operator must first equalize the individual balanced-modulator output amplitudes, which may be done by adjusting the relative gain of the two af input channels. One balanced modulator should be operated at a time, and its output may conveniently be measured by means of a meter or oscilloscope. The two are set to produce rf outputs of equal magnitude for a given common modulating signal. The rf phase may then be adjusted until the ripple on the output envelope disappears.

This indication is quite sensitive, as may be seen with the aid of Fig. 7. Here E_A and E_B represent the instan-

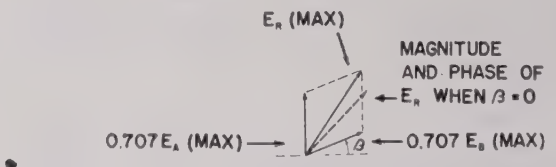


Fig. 7—Vector diagram illustrating sideband envelope modulation due to error in radio-frequency phase setting.

taneous rf outputs of each pair of balanced modulators. It may be shown that for a given radio-frequency phase error β, the resultant of these two voltages $E_{R(\max)}$ has its greatest value at the point in the audio cycle at which the two modulator outputs are equal, and 0.707 times the maximum; i.e., the condition illustrated. Since the angle β represents the deviation of the radio frequency phase from quadrature, it follows that at this point in the audio cycle

$$E_{R(\max)} = 2 \cdot 0.707 \cdot E_A \cos 1/2(90° - \beta) = E_{A(\max)}(\cos \beta/2 + \sin \beta/2) \quad (5$$

where $E_{A(\max)}$ represents the output of one balanced modulator at the crest of the audio cycle. The percentage ripple superimposed on the twin-balanced-modulator output envelope may be defined as follows:

$$\text{percentage of ripple} = \frac{E_{R(\max)} - E_{A(\max)}}{E_{A(\max)}} \times 100. \quad (6$$

$E_{A(\max)}$, the peak output of one balanced modulator alone, is also the amplitude of the single-sideband output in the absence of any ripple. The percentage o

pple then equals

$$\text{percentage of ripple} = 100(\cos \beta/2 + \sin \beta/2 - 1) \quad (7)$$
$$\cong 100 \sin \beta/2$$
$$\cong 0.8\beta,$$

here β is small and expressed in degrees.

Thus a 10° inaccuracy in phase setting results in an per cent ripple "modulation" of the single-sideband nvelope, which is quite readily visible on an oscillo-cope.

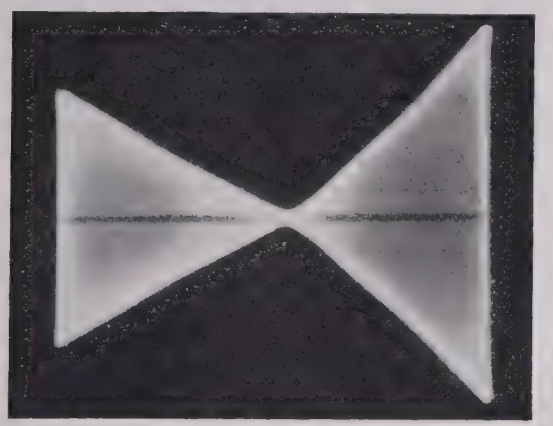


Fig. 8—Trapezoidal pattern: one balanced modulator, balancing resistors improperly set.

When highest accuracy of setting is desired, it is best o observe the output envelope with an oscilloscope, touching up" the grid tuning (i.e., the rf phase setting) ntil the ripple is at a minimum. Alternatively, a simple ectifier connected to a pair of earphones may be excited om the output: correct phase setting will result in a isappearance of the audible tone caused by the ripple.

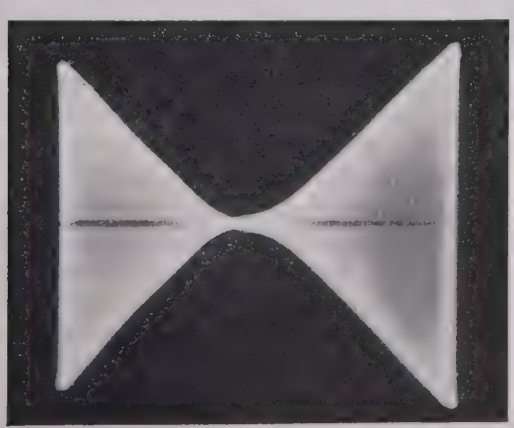


Fig. 9—Trapezoidal pattern: balancing resistors correct, but too high a negative bias on screen grids.

A similar procedure can also be employed to equalize ne outputs of the two tubes in each pair of balanced modulators. One possible way to adjust their outputs is to vary the grid-bias resistors shown in Fig. 2, until each tube produces the same rf output for a given positive dc screen voltage. To set the resistors, it is best to turn off one balanced modulator. If the remaining two tubes are not equalized with respect to each other, a trapezoidal oscilloscope pattern will resemble Fig. 8 or Fig. 11.

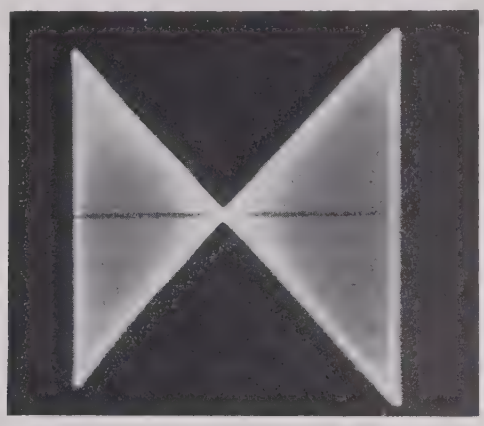


Fig. 10—Trapezoidal pattern: correct adjustment.

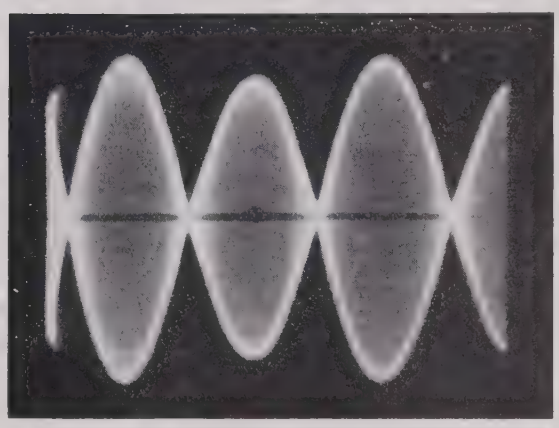


Fig. 11—Output envelope, same as Fig. 8.

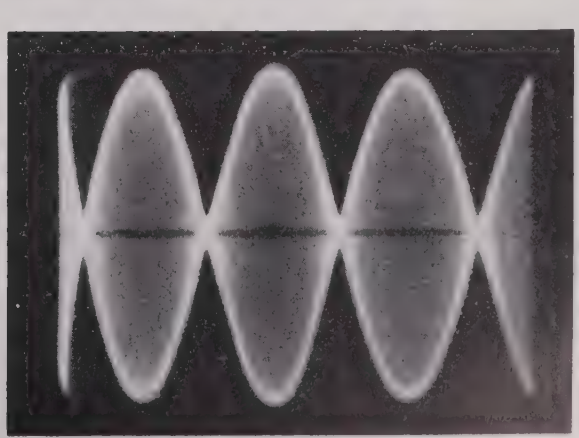


Fig. 12—Output envelope, same as Fig. 10.

Adjustment of the grid resistors for equal tube efficiencies will give a pattern like that of Fig. 10 or Fig. 12. The process is then repeated for the second pair of balanced modulators comprising the twin balanced modulator. If an oscilloscope is not available, it is possible with some practice to set the grid resistors by listening to the rectified output envelope of each balanced modulator in turn. The change in harmonic structure of the output envelope, when the two tubes of each modulator are equalized, may be detected by ear.

The proper antenna loading is that which just allows, at full output, the dc plate voltage E_b in Fig. 2 minus the peak rf output voltage E_{ac} across the common tank circuit, to equal the voltage at which a virtual cathode forms within the tubes. This is the point at which the tube plate current just begins to be appreciably affected by the instantaneous plate voltage and corresponds to the condition where saturation begins to occur.

The first step in designing a twin balanced modulator is the selection of tetrode or pentode tubes (preferably the former, because of their lesser output capacitance) whose rated plate dissipation is one-fourth the desired peak rf power output. (This follows because the full-output efficiency for a sine-wave modulating signal is approximately 50 per cent in practice, and each tube dissipates one-fourth the total power lost.)

The rated tube carrier power output for class-B linear or grid-modulated telephony is noted, as well as the rated plate and screen potentials for this class of service. In order to produce the greatest peak power for single-sideband service, it is desirable to scale the operating potentials upward by a factor equal to the square root of the ratio between the peak power desired and the peak power developed in linear or grid-bias modulated amplifier service. This will ordinarily be by a factor of the order of 1.5 times. The average dc plate current consumed at full output may be calculated on the basis of the assumed over-all efficiency, which is $\pi/4$ times, or 78.5 per cent, that of one tube operating as a linear amplifier of single-sideband signals.

The screen input power required by the four tubes is supplied by the two audio amplifiers. The audio power needed is, in point of fact, far less than what would be expected if it were assumed that the screen current drawn in this class of service was in direct proportion to that drawn in class-C telegraph operation. On the basis of such an assumption, it may be shown that the two audio amplifiers would each be required to supply an audio power output equal to the normal class-C telegraph dc screen input to one tube of the four-tube twin balanced modulator. This in itself is not a large amount of power, as the dc screen input to a tetrode tube is commonly of the order of one-twentieth the radio-frequency output power.

However in twin balanced modulator service, a considerable saving in screen modulating power results from the fact that virtual cathode formation is not permitted to occur at any point in the rf or af cycle. In norma class-C operation of tetrodes, the minimum plate volt age is allowed to swing down to the point where a larg share of the space current is momentarily attracted t the screen grid, thus increasing the average screen cur rent and input power. With aligned-grid tetrodes—nov almost universally used—when the minimum plate volt age is not allowed to swing this low, an exceedingl small fraction of the space current is diverted to th screen grid. This is a result of the normal electron focus ing action within the tube. In consequence, a screen grid-modulated balanced modulator requires a remark ably small amount of audio power, of the order of 3 o 4 watts for a 500-watt output. The regulation of th voltage source must, of course, be good; a requiremen which can readily be met by use of inverse feedback.

The linearity of the modulation characteristic obtain able with a screen-grid-modulated balanced modulato has been found to be entirely acceptable.

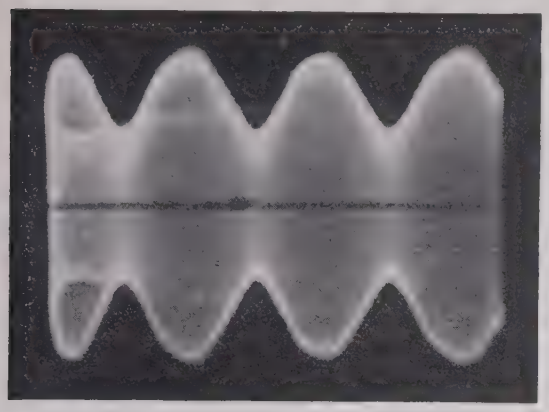
The output capacitances of the four tetrode tubes which are all in parallel across the common tank cir cuit, may lead to lower-than-normal tank-circui efficiency in the 15- to 30-Mc frequency range. Wit coils of ordinary Q, the inductance required for reso nance, and therefore the parallel-resonant impedance, be come small. It will be found that tubes of recent desig tend to have much lower output capacitances than thei older counterparts. The 125-watt RCA type 803 pen tode, for example, has an output capacitance of 29 $\mu\mu$f yet the 1000-watt Eimac type 4-1000A tetrode has ar output capacitance of but 7.6 $\mu\mu$f.

The effects of tube output capacitance may, of course be mitigated by designing the tank circuit as a pi net work rather than as a simple resonant circuit, as is some times done in television practice.

Choice of the proper tank-circuit Q is conventional It may be of help to recall here that, at one point in th audio cycle, one of the four tubes is delivering the entire output, under conditions equivalent to those obtaining in any class-C amplifier.

Oscillograms illustrating the operation of an experimental twin balanced modulator are shown in Figs. 8 through 14. Figs. 8 through 10 are trapezoidal patterns obtained with only one balanced modulator running. In Fig. 8, the grid-bias resistors are improperly set, so that one tube has a lower efficiency than the other. The correct adjustment is that which makes the slopes of the diagonal lines the same in each half of the pattern. In Fig. 9, the resistors are set correctly, but the negative screen bias is excessive in relation to the tube plate voltage and rf excitation. Both tubes are cut off during a portion of the audio cycle. Fig. 10 shows the correct adjustment. (The right-hand half of this pattern is somewhat larger than the left because of stray carrier voltage being picked up from a buffer stage.) Fig. 11 shows the appearance of the output envelope for the conditions of Fig. 8, while Fig. 12 shows the correct

djustment. In Fig. 13 both balanced modulators are nning, but the undesired sideband is not completely



ig. 13—Output envelope, both modulators: either amplitudes equal, rf phases incorrect, or amplitudes unequal, rf phase correct.

ancelled due to inaccuracies in either phase or amplitude setting, or both. The correct phase and amplitude ettings produce an output envelope very nearly free rom ripple, as will be seen in Fig. 14.

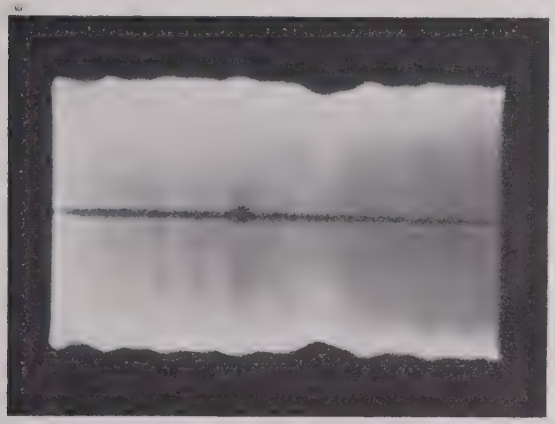


Fig. 14—Output envelope, both modulators: amplitudes and phases correct.

It is worth noting that the undesired-sideband rejection obtainable with the twin balanced-modulator circuit can be made as complete as desired by proper djustment of phase and amplitude settings. (The rection is to some extent dependent on audio level.) he amount of rejection achieved in practice over a and of modulating frequencies, then, is primarily deterined by the phase and amplitude characteristics of the udio phase-shift network. Tests have shown that it is eadily possible, at a single audio frequency, to attenute the undesired sideband far below the level of the igher-order sidebands caused by the presence of harnonic distortion in the audio amplifiers and by nonlinearities in the modulation process.

An advantage of phase-rotation single-sideband transmitters, in general, is the fact that the sideband radiated may be changed by reversing the polarity of the audio input to one of the component balanced modulators. This may be an operating convenience, particularly when the receiver is one of the type deriving its effective selectivity from a combination of an audio low-pass filter and 90° wideband phase-shift networks.[5] In this instance, both transmission and reception can be changed from one sideband to the other merely by throwing switches at the transmitter and receiver, no retuning being needed. In certain cases, such flexibility is of great assistance in avoiding interference.

To radiate a reduced carrier with the twin-balanced modulator, a positive bias voltage may be applied to the screen grid of one of the four tubes.

Finally, it seems desirable to point out that one program may be transmitted on one side of the suppressed carrier, and another on the other side, by providing a second pair of audio inputs between which a 90° phase shift exists. The polarity of one of these channels is reversed with respect to that of its counterpart in the first pair. These two pairs of audio voltages, when added and fed to the input terminals of the twin balanced modulator, will produce two independent sets of single sidebands, one on either side of the carrier.

Conclusions

Two high-power balanced modulators, biased to cutoff in the absence of an audio input and using tubes which behave substantially as constant-current sources, may be connected to a common tank circuit for the generation of single-sideband signals by the phase-rotation method. The efficiency obtainable with this arrangement approximates that of a conventional linear amplifier.

Simplicity, ease of adjustment, and power economy recommend this circuit for applications where a certain amount of distortion and undesired sideband output can be tolerated.

Acknowledgment

The work described in this paper represents an outgrowth of research carried out under Contract W28-099-ac-131 between Stanford University and the Air Matériel Command, Watson Laboratories. The author is indebted to the Air Matériel Command for permission to publish, and to Frederick E. Terman, Dean of the Stanford School of Engineering, for inspiration, help, and guidance.

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An Antenna for Controlling the Nonfading Range of Broadcasting Stations*

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Summary—A new type of broadcast antenna is described which radiates very little energy over a wide, high angle. The angle above which minimum energy is radiated can be varied electrically from 40° to 60°, thus permitting the fading wall to be adjusted for maximum primary service. The electrical height of the antenna is dependent upon the specific vertical pattern desired but is approximately 300°. The results of experiments with small model antennas are in good agreement with theory.

Introduction

THE PRIMARY SERVICE area of a broadcast station is important from a service and a commercial point of view. The ideal antenna for a high-powered broadcast station, providing both a groundwave and a skywave service, should have a vertical radiation characteristic such that the skywave signal does not interfere with the desirable groundwave service. The nighttime primary service area would then be practically as large as the daytime area, since the fading or distortion wall would not be the limiting factor. It is further desirable that the skywave signal strength rise rapidly in order to limit the intense fading area to a narrow band around the station.

The power, frequency, and the ground conductivity around the individual station determine the signal strength at a given location, while the general noise level fixes the minimum signal intensity required to provide a satisfactory service. Thus, the limit of satisfactory service is unique with each individual station; and a definite vertical radiation characteristic is required to achieve the ideal in each case.

In recent years, considerable work[1–9] has been done toward improving the vertical radiation characteristics of broadcast antennas, and today a uniform-cross-section tower approximately 0.53-wavelength high is generally used to secure the maximum nonfading range. This antenna is still far from ideal, since the distortion zone usually limits the primary service area at night. This undesirable limitation is caused by the radiation of considerable power at the higher vertical angles.

The purpose of this paper is to describe a new type of antenna that radiates practically all energy at angles below 50° of the horizontal, and extremely little energy above this elevation. Further, this angle can be varied from 40° to 60° by a simple electrical adjustment with but a small increase in higher-angle radiation. These limits are equivalent to distances of 80 to 160 miles for the first-reflection skywave signal, fixing the location of the center of the fading zone at approximately 100 to 200 miles from the transmitter.

Electrical Characteristics

The antenna consists of a linear array of two vertical elements, one directly above the other as shown in Fig. 1. It is apparent that this is a combination of an antenna at ground elevation, and an antenna elevated above the earth. The vertical radiation characteristics of each of these antenna types are well known. It is the unique combination of these two antennas into a single radiator that reduces the high-angle radiation.

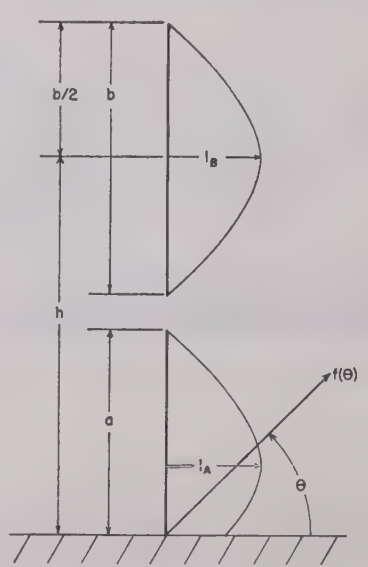

Fig. 1—Diagram illustrating notations used in developing the vertical radiation characteristics of the antenna.

* Decimal classification: R326.4. Original manuscript received by the Institute, October 27, 1947.

† Radio Station WOAI, San Antonio, Texas.

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In Fig. 1, element A, the section at ground elevation has a length a; and B, the elevated section, a length b with the center of this section at a height h above ground. We then have, for a free-space wavelength λ,

$$A = 360\ a/\lambda \text{ degrees}$$
$$B = 360\ b/\lambda \text{ degrees}$$
$$H = 360\ h/\lambda \text{ degrees}.$$

The antenna is driven so that the loop currents in elements A and B are in phase. If the magnitude of the loop current in A is considered as unity, the current ratio can be expressed as

$$m = I_B/I_A = I_B. \tag{1}$$

It has been shown[6] that the vertical radiation characteristic for the lower section A is

$$K_A f(\theta) = [\cos (A \sin \theta) - \cos A]/\cos \theta \tag{2}$$

where θ is the angle above the horizontal. For the upper section B, which for simplicity in calculations is considered a half-wave element, the vertical characteristic[10] is

$$K_B f(\theta) = 2m \cos (90 \sin \theta) \cos (H \sin \theta)/\cos \theta \tag{3}$$

and for both sections, adding (2) and (3), we have

$$K_0 f(\theta) = [\cos (A \sin \theta) - \cos A]/\cos \theta + 2m \cos (90 \sin \theta) \cos (H \sin \theta)/\cos \theta. \tag{4}$$

The form factor K_0 referred to the current loop is

$$1 - \cos A + 2m$$

and the vertical radiation characteristic for the antenna is

$$f(\theta) = \frac{\cos (A \sin \theta) - \cos A + 2m \cos (90 \sin \theta) \cos (H \sin \theta)}{(1 - \cos A + 2m) \cos \theta}. \tag{5}$$

Since the vertical characteristic of a half-wave element in space, $\cos (90 \sin \theta)/\cos \theta$, is practically equal[11] to $\cos \theta$, (4) and likewise (5) will hold as an approximation if the upper element is made less than one-half wavelength long.

The form factor K_0 is a constant for a particular combination of element length A, and current ratio m, and $\cos \theta$ affects both elements similarly; therefore, it is convenient to omit the effect of the denominator of (5) in developing the optimum design of an antenna to give a particular radiation characteristic. This is done by evaluating separately the first part of the numerator of (5) for

$$K_0 \cos \theta f(\theta)_A = \cos (A \sin \theta) - \cos A, \tag{6}$$

and the second part of the numerator for

$$K_0 \cos \theta f(\theta)_B/m = 2 \cos (90 \sin \theta) \cos (H \sin \theta). \tag{7}$$

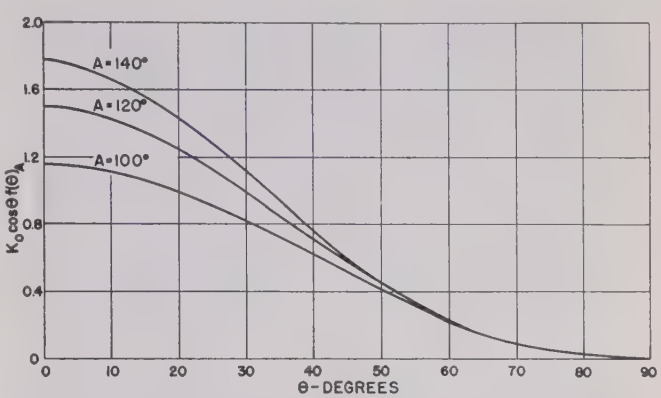


Fig. 2—$K_0 \cos \theta$ times the vertical radiation characteristics of the lower element of the antenna.

Fig. 2 is a plot of (6), $K_0 \cos \theta$ times the vertical radiation characteristics of the lower section A for various lengths A, while Fig. 3 is a similar plot of (7) for the upper section B for certain center heights H.

An examination of Fig. 3 shows, for the values of H considered, that the field from the elevated element goes through a phase reversal around 25°, and above this point will be 180° out of phase with the high-angle field from the lower element. If the parameters A and H are correctly selected, and if the loop current in the elevated element is made less than the current in the lower element by the proper amount, the fields of the two elements can be made nearly equal, and will cancel for angles deviating considerably from 90°.

Antenna Design

For mechanical simplicity, a design was chosen in which the upper half-wave section rested on the top of the lower section. For minimum radiation above an angle of 50°, we have, from Figs. 3 and 4, a lower-element length of 120° and a center height of the upper element of 210°. The value of m for the 50° null is 0.69. It is of interest to note from Fig. 4 that this design results in practically no radiation above 50°—the maximum occurring at 56°, where it is less than 0.02 of that in the horizontal plane.

[10] While the mutual reaction is small in this antenna, it is not necessary to consider it in the formula developed for the vertical characteristics. As in all arrays, it must, however, be considered to determine the networks required to properly match the individual elements to the transmission line.

[11] The exact equation of an element of any length in free space is given by the Federal Telephone and Radio Corporation's "Reference Data for Radio Engineers" as

$$f(\theta) = [1 + \cos^2 B + \sin^2 \theta \sin^2 B - 2 \cos (B \sin \theta) \cos B - 2 \sin \theta \sin (B \sin \theta) \sin B]^{1/2}/\cos \theta.$$

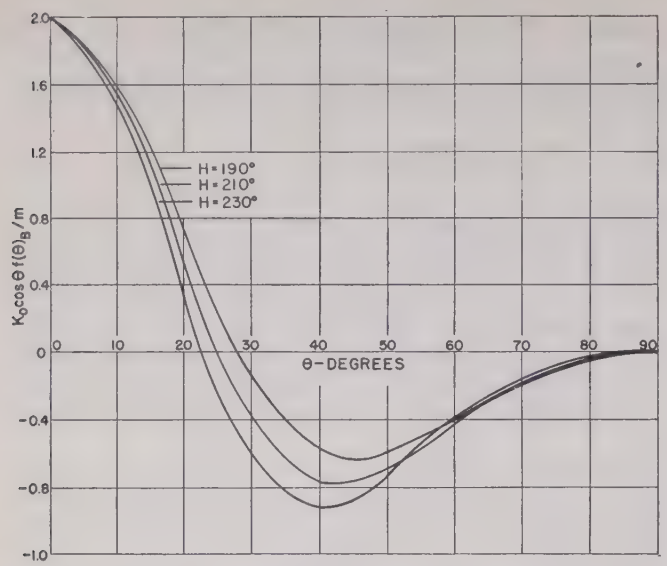


Fig. 3—$K_0 \cos \theta/m$ times the vertical radiation characteristics of the elevated element of the antenna.

In Fig. 4, in addition to the current ratio of 0.69, the vertical radiation characteristics of other m values have been plotted. It is apparent that a change of m from 0.9 to 0.6, merely an electrical adjustment, can vary the angle above which little energy is radiated from 40° to 60°.

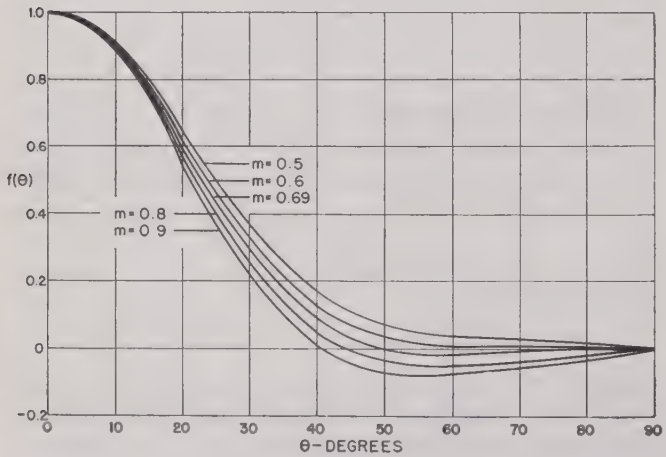


Fig. 4—The vertical radiation characteristics of the antenna for various current ratios m, when A is 120°, B is 180°, and H is 210°.

The theoretical field gain of this antenna, for an m ratio of 0.69, is 14.5 per cent compared to a 0.53-wavelength antenna, or 41.5 per cent referred to a quarter-wavelength antenna. These field gains are equivalent to power gains of 32 and 100 per cent respectively.

The advantages of the new arrangement are readily seen in Fig. 5, which compares the performance of the proposed antenna with a 0.53-wavelength antenna. Both antennas are assumed to radiate a field of 1770 millivolts per meter at one mile on a frequency of 1000 kc over earth with a conductivity of 10^{-13} emu. The sky-wave signal values are for 50 per cent of the time. For the 0.53-wavelength antenna, the center of the fading zone is at 127 miles where the groundwave signal has an intensity of 0.6 mv/m. The proposed antenna has the same distortion point at 164 miles and at a signal intensity of 0.29 mv/m. The width of the two-to-one signal ratio skywave and groundwave fading zone has been reduced from 36 miles to 24 miles, because of the difference in the angle of the skywave signal rise. In other words, the distortion zone of bad fading has been moved from a point of good rural primary service to a point

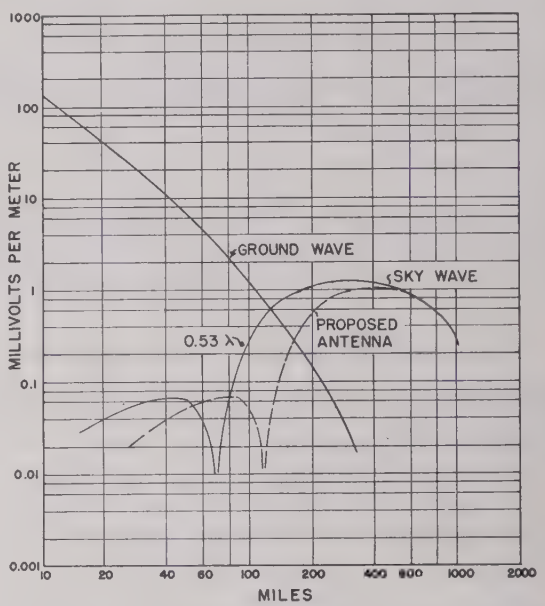


Fig. 5—Comparison of the fading range of a 0.53-wavelength antenna and the new antenna. Both antennas produce a field of 1770 millivolts per meter at one mile for a transmitter frequency of 1000 kc over earth with a conductivity of 10^{-13} emu.

where the groundwave signal strength is hardly adequate for year-round noise-free reception. If a current ratio m of 0.9 had been used, the point of maximum fading would have been moved to a distance of 185 miles for a signal level of 0.2 mv/m.

Experimental Tests with Models

Experimental verification of the predicted radiation characteristics of this antenna was made by the use of small models operating close to 100 Mc. The model used as a comparison standard was, as nearly as possible, an exact scale duplicate of the WOAI 425-foot guyed uniform-cross-section tower. This is an insulated tower supported by a foundation pier, with an over-all height above ground of 435 feet. The model of the proposed antenna consisted of a $\frac{5}{8}$-inch-diameter conductor 300° long, with the lower 120° shielded by a 1-inch conductor. This in effect gave a lower, or A, section of 120° and an upper, or B, section of 180°. At broadcast frequencies, the outer shield could be a wire cage insulated from a vertical

wer. The two different sections were fed so that the rrent could be adjusted both as to magnitude and ase angle. The magnitude of the current was adjusted connecting the two feed lines to the antenna at the oper points along a shorted one-quarter-wave slotted axial line. Power from the transmitter was fed to this me one-quarter-wavelength line. The phase of the cur- nt was controlled by a trombone-type section in the ed line to the upper element.

The frequency used for these tests was 116.1 Mc, giv- g a reduction factor of 96.9 over 1200 kc, which made e 0.53-wavelength antenna 52.6 inches high. A propa- tion constant of 0.937 was used for the new antenna, aking it 79.2 inches high.

The vertical radiation characteristics were measured means of a receiving antenna mounted at the apex of wooden "A" frame. The two pivot points were 20 feet part, with the model antenna under test located half- ay between these two points. (Fig. 6.) The apex of the A" frame was 50 feet from the model. This distance

Fig. 6—The scale model of the new antenna in position between the pivot points of the "A" frame.

ovides less than 10° phase differential between the top d bottom of the 300° antenna for elevations above 45°. he "A" frame was moved by means of a block and ckle from a minimum elevation of 19.5° to a maximum evation of 85°. These limits were imposed by mechani- l factors. The receiving antenna, Fig. 7, consisted of a rtical dipole and corner reflector with 14 elements in e reflector. The directivity was used to minimize the flections from objects in the vicinity of the equip- ent.

The voltage induced in the dipole was rectified by eans of a Sylvania 1N34 crystal rectifier with the dc component being fed down one leg of the "A" frame by a shielded wire. This current was measured by means of a 100-microampere meter. The detector was calibrated by connecting the high-frequency probe of a vacuum-tube voltmeter to the lower end of the 0.53-wavelength antenna and varying the power output of the transmitter. A comparison of the two meter readings provided the required calibration.

Fig. 7—The receiving antenna used in experimental measurements of the vertical radiation characteristics of the scale models.

The model antennas were excited with approximately 5 watts of rf energy from an Army Air Forces Type SCR-522 transmitter through 100 feet of RG 8/U coaxial cable. This long cable permitted placing the transmitter equipment outside of the pickup field of the receiving antenna. The coaxial-cable was matched to the antenna by means of a shielded matching network.

The vertical fields radiated from the 0.53-wavelength antenna were measured by adjusting the meter to read 0.76, the theoretical relative amplitude at an elevation of 19.5°. The "A" frame was then moved by increments to the maximum elevation, readings being taken at each position. The ground-plane field strength was measured with a separate detector, using a short vertical antenna at ground elevation. Three separate measurements were made with this separate antenna, with quite close agreement.

In the case of the new antenna, the "A" frame was raised to an elevation of 50°, and the antenna currents were adjusted for minimum 50°-angle field and maximum zero degree field. Measurements of the vertical fields were made in a similar manner as for the 0.53-wavelength antenna, except that the meter was adjusted to read 0.62 at 19.5°, the theoretical value.

Experimental Results

Preliminary tests were made with the models erected on top of a chicken-wire ground plane 20 feet wide and

16 feet long, with a small 5-inch-square copper plate directly under the antenna support to simulate the normal 40-foot-square ground mat. The results of these tests are plotted in Fig. 8. While there is considerable deviation from the expected theoretical characteristics, the proposed antenna has a vertical radiation characteristic which is a decided improvement over that of the 0.53-wavelength model. The irregularities on the curves at 40° were caused by reflections from the edge of the ground screen. The dotted lines on Fig. 8 illustrate the results to be expected in the absence of the ground-screen reflection.

It has been shown[12] that, for a model antenna to be a simulation of a full-scale system, the dielectric constant

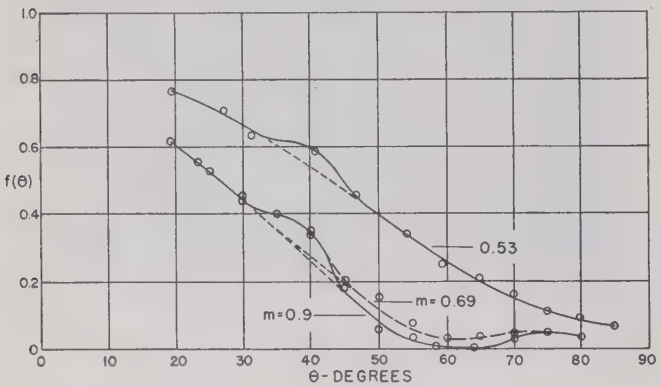


Fig. 8—The measured vertical radiation characteristics for the two models when operating over very poor earth.

of the soil should be the same as the full-scale system, but the conductivity should be increased by the ratio of the frequency of the model to that of the system. The results shown in Fig. 8 would indicate that the chicken-wire mesh apparently made little improvement over the existing soil, having a conductivity of approximately 20×10^{-14}. At 116.1 Mc the conductivity would be equivalent to 2.07×10^{-15}, which represents a very poor earth.

Since, for these experiments, it was not practicable to increase the conductivity of a large area of earth by a factor of 96.9, the mesh was removed and replaced by a copper-screen wire ground plane 16 feet wide and 33 feet long. The screen was placed so that the model was 21 feet from the end nearer the receiving antenna at minimum elevation.

The theoretical and measured vertical characteristics for the 0.53-wavelength antenna using the new ground screen are plotted in Fig. 9; Fig. 10 is a similar plot for

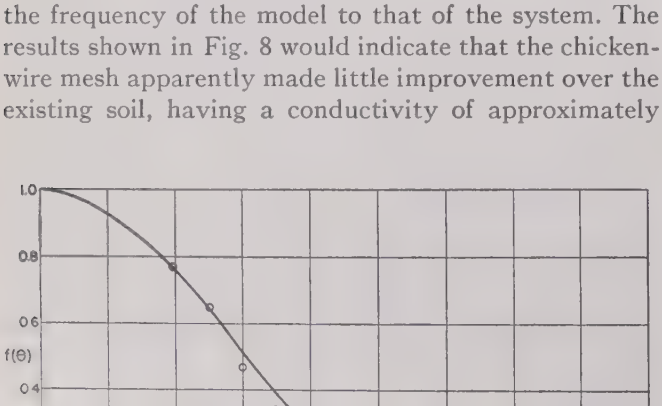


Fig. 9—The theoretical and measured vertical radiation characteristics for the 0.53-wavelength model. The circles are experimental.

[12] G. Sinclair, "Notes on modeling vehicular antennas," The Ohio State University Research Foundation, October, 1945; not published.

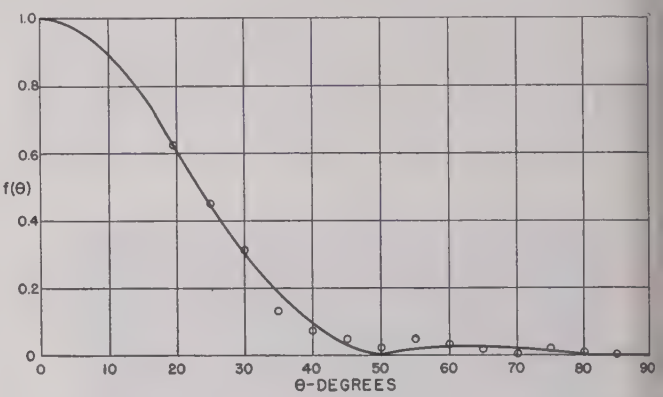


Fig. 10—The theoretical and measured vertical radiation characteristics for the new antenna. The circles are experimental.

the new antenna. Minimum 50° radiation for the latter was secured with a current, or m ratio, of 0.70. The ground-plane measurements showed a field reading of 68 microamperes for the 0.53-wavelength antenna and 78 microamperes for the new antenna, or a signal gain of 14.6 per cent. For m adjusted to 0.84, the field gain measured 16 per cent, the maximum secured. The slight deviations at 35° were due to reflections from the edge of the copper-screen ground plane. This effect appeared on all measurements made.

Additional tests were made for current ratios m from 0.41 to 1.23, with the phase being adjusted for each measurement, to zero angle or maximum ground-plane field. For both the lower and higher ratios, there was a considerable increase in high-angle radiation, but within the limits of $m=0.5$ to 0.9 the increase was small, as predicted by theory.

Fig. 11 shows the relative current distribution on the two types of antennas. The currents were measured by means of a small loop mounted within a Faraday shield. The loop was tuned to resonance and the rectified d-c output was conducted by means of a twin-conductor choke coil mounted within a 3-foot fiber handle to a 200 microampere meter with suitable shunt. A "V"-shaped guide at the end of the probe maintained equal spacing and angle with respect to the antenna element. The current distribution was measured by placing the guide on

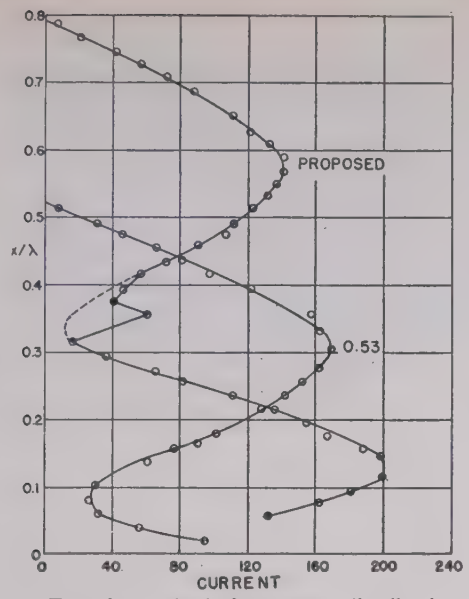


Fig. 11—Experimental relative current distribution on the two models.

he end of the probe against the antenna and noting the neter reading at each increment of height. The finite size of the probe or end radiation from the open top of the lower section made it impossible to secure expected results at the junction of the upper and lower sections of the antenna.

Conclusions

The proposed antenna achieves a notable reduction of higher angle radiation and a substantial gain in signal strength. For the higher-powered stations, these advantages should more than compensate for the necessary increase in tower cost. Furthermore, the ability to adjust electrically the angle of minimum radiation by variation of the current ratio m will prove of considerable value in securing the proper nonfading range by field measurements.

Acknowledgment

Appreciation is expressed to A. D. Ring for helpful comment on the development of this antenna; to John H. DeWitt, Jr., for suggestions used in making the experimental tests; and to Louis Thein, for assistance in the preparation of this paper.

The Light-Pattern Meter*

R. E. SANTO†

Summary—**A new meter which determines the amplitudes of ine waves recorded on disks is described. It is accurate to 0.5 db nd obviates the need of a dark room for measurement of the useful 'christmas-tree pattern."**

THE BUCHMANN-MEYER, or optical, system of measuring the velocity of sine waves recorded on disks has been used for a number of years by nany people without all the necessary precautions being taken to obtain full accuracy. These precautions nave been pointed out by Bauer[1] and Hornbostel[2] in the iterature. Their papers derive formulas giving the maximum instantaneous velocity when the light and observer ire not at infinity.

This paper describes an instrument which employs a nodified form of the Buchmann-Meyer principle, and has been constructed so that it is contained completely in a portable box and is free from errors assignable to its mode of operation.

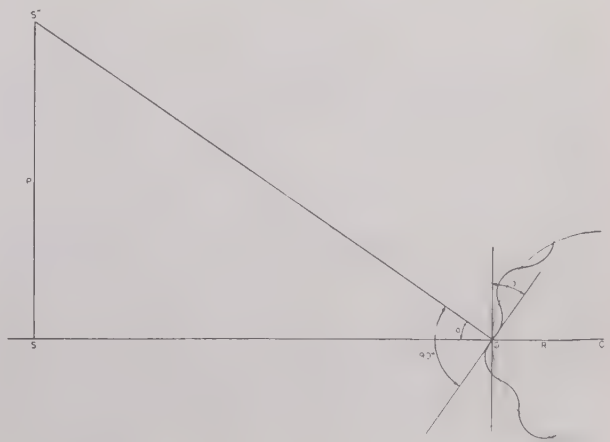


Fig. 1—Illustration of the general theory of the light-pattern meter.

Fig. 1 shows a portion of a sine wave recorded on a disk at a radius R from the center C. The eye of the ob-

* Decimal classification: 621.375.607×621.385.971. Original nanuscript received by the Institute, January 2, 1948; revised manuscript received, June 24, 1948.

† Canadian Broadcasting Corporation, Montreal, Quebec, Canada.

[1] B. B. Bauer, "Measurement of recording characteristics by nean of light patterns," *Jour. Acous. Soc. Amer.*, vol. 18, pp. 387–395; October, 1946.

[2] J. Hornbostel, "Improved theory of the light-pattern method for he modulation measurement in groove recording," *Jour. Acous. Soc. Amer.*, vol. 19, pp. 165–169; January, 1947.

server is placed on a line perpendicular to the surface of the disk and passing through the point 0. If a point source of light is movable along a line, between the points $S-S''$, which is perpendicular to the line joining the center of the disk C and the point 0, reflected light will reach the eye. Since these perpendicular reflections do occur, the edge of the groove must be slightly rounded. The point S'' is on a line drawn perpendicular to the line of maximum slope of the recorded groove at 0. When the light is beyond S'' there is no reflecting surface element on the record which is perpendicular to the plane containing S'' and the line between the eye and the point 0. Therefore, no reflected light will reach the eye. If the light is set so that the borderline between the light and dark appearance occurs at 0, the tangent of the angle $S''OS$ will, with no correction, be equal to slope of the sine wave at 0. In order to maintain the line of sight to the eye exactly perpendicular to the disk surface at 0, a small pointer and a peephole are required. The exactly vertical rays of light only must be used; therefore, no lenses (which widen the angle of vision) can be permitted. Under these conditions the eye and the point source of light may be at *any* distance from the point 0, and not affect the accuracy.

Fig. 2 shows that the incident light ray is not in the plane of the disk surface, but at an angle m above it.

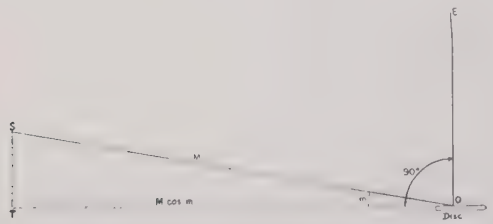


Fig. 2—Drawing showing the angles between the surface of the disk and the rays of light.

The distance from S to 0 is called M, and so the horizontal distance OT is equal to $M \cos m$. If the distance of light travel $S-S''$ or $T-T''$ is equal to P (measured in the same units as M), then the slope of the sine wave at 0 will be given by $\tan a = P/M \cos m$.

The stylus velocity of interest in a recording is the maximum instantaneous linear velocity of the stylus tip back and forth along a radius of the disk as it follows the modulated groove.

The maximum instantaneous radial velocity of a stylus following a sine wave whose maximum slope is $\tan a$ at a radius R on a disk turning at $33\frac{1}{3}$ rpm is given by the following:

$$V = \frac{33.33}{60} \times 2\pi R \tan a \text{ cm/sec if } R \text{ is in centimeters;}$$

i.e., $V = 3.485\ R \tan a$ cm/sec.

But

$$\tan a = \frac{P}{M \cos m};$$

therefore,

$$V = \frac{3.485RP}{M \cos m} \text{ cm/sec at } 33\tfrac{1}{3} \text{ rpm.}$$

Using these principles, a light-pattern meter was constructed. Since M and m are fixed quantities in any particular meter, the absolute value of the velocity is equal to a constant times the product of R and P. The lengths of R and P as measured by the light-pattern meter are converted to two electrical voltages proportional to R and P, respectively. These two quantities are multiplied together in an electrical circuit and the result shown on a meter. The meter is calibrated to read in db above and below the reference level $V = 5$ cm/sec.

Fig. 3 shows an external view of the new meter. The dial at the upper left controls the movement of the light;

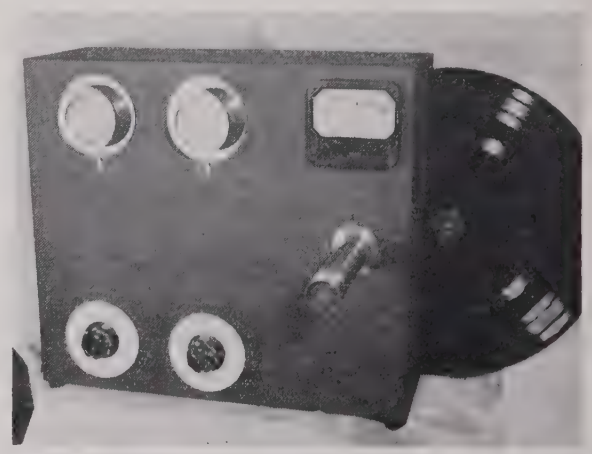


Fig. 3—External view of the light-pattern meter.

the other dial at the top controls the position of the disk under test. The lower left knob ($P1$) is used to calibrate the electrical circuit, and the remaining knob is used to control the meter range switch ($S1$). This switch is calibrated for use with disks recorded at 78.26 and $33\frac{1}{3}$ rpm.

Fig. 4 shows the meter with the cover removed. The light is provided with sliding contacts on the metal tracks which are used to supply it with power. The light control turns the potentiometer $P2$ in exact proportion to the movement of the light. The turntable control turns the potentiometer $P3$ in exact proportion to the radius R, which is the distance from the turntable center to the pointer. The turntable is moved by a rack and pinion from the control dial. The center line through the eyepiece and the tip of the pointer must be perpendicular to the disk surface.

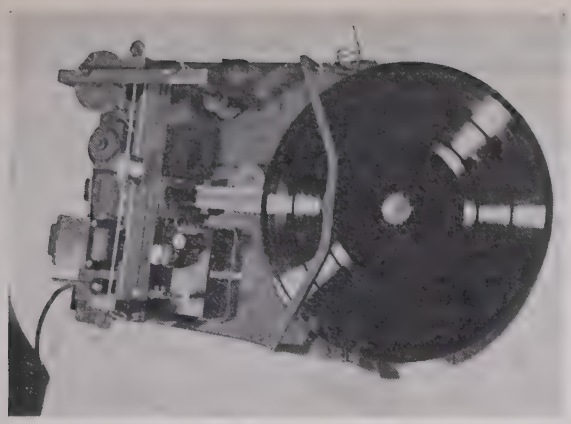


Fig. 4—Internal view of the light-pattern meter.

The circuit used in the instrument is shown in Fig. 5. It is based on the fact that the output voltage from two

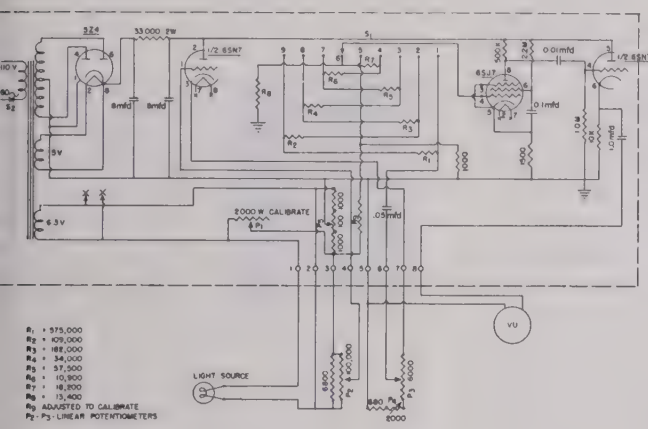


Fig. 5—Electrical circuit of the light-pattern meter.

potentiometers in cascade will be proportional to the product of the arm positions. The potentiometer $P2$ gives an output voltage proportional to the movement of the light. A 100,000-ohm potentiometer is used here in order that small increments of voltage may be measured as the pointer moves from wire to wire. Zero output voltage is obtained at the center of the potentiometer movement. This zero must coincide with the mechanical zero of the instrument; that is, when the center of the light-pattern is directly under the pointer. Exact tracking is obtained by using screwdriver-controlled $P5$. The output from $P2$ is fed to the first cathode follower.

The cathode resistor of this tube is the potentiometer $P3$, which gives an output proportional to the radius R. Tracking of $P3$ with R is adjusted by screwdriver-controlled $P4$.

To measure the velocity of a sine wave recorded on a disk, the disk is mounted on the small turntable. The radius control is then adjusted until the required track is seen under the tip of the pointer. The meter switch is set at the "calibrate" position and the calibrate control adjusted until the meter reads zero vu. This calibration will vary with line voltage, and therefore needs to be checked occasionally. The light-control dial is adjusted until one light-pattern edge is directly under the pointer. The meter switch is then turned to the appropriate range and the velocity read in db relative to a zero level of 5 cm per second. A reading may be taken using the opposite edge of the light pattern, also. Any difference in the two readings indicates either that the control $P5$ was not properly adjusted, or that there is distortion in the recorded wave shape.

Fig. 6 shows the pattern as seen in the meter. Relative widths of the bands of light do not represent rela-

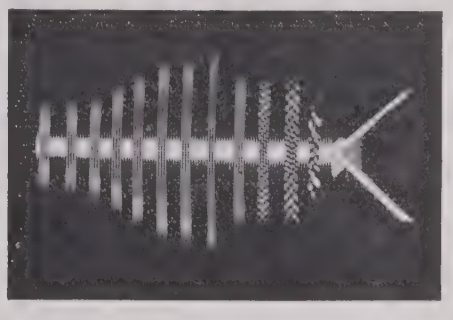


Fig. 6—Light pattern as observed through the meter eyepiece.

tive velocities in the photograph, since the bands must be moved under the pointer tip one by one for measurement. The narrow light strip between successive bands of light represents irregularities in smoothness of groove surface. These irregularities are the cause of "surface noise" when the disk is played on a reproducer. The width of this band as measured by the light-pattern meter does not indicate the noise level of the disk, since the waveform is nonsinusoidal.

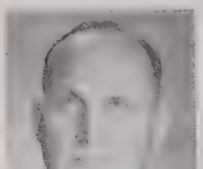
The reason for the small turntable is to provide a definite edge to the light-pattern at the very low frequencies. By turning the disk slightly by hand, it is possible to line up several waves on successive grooves along the same radius line, and these individual reflections, combined with the retentivity of the eye, provide the necessary definite edge.

This paper has shown that a means is available of enclosing the equipment for light-pattern measurements in a box of reasonable dimensions. The light-pattern meter provides an accurate, portable, and time-saving device for the otherwise tedious job of light-pattern measurements. Measurements have been made consistently within 0.5 db.

Acknowledgment

The writer wishes to acknowledge the helpful suggestions and advice of J. E. Hayes and others of the staff of the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation.

Contributors to Waves and Electrons Section



JAMES C. COE

James Clarence Coe (A'25–VA'39) was born in 1900 at Niobrara, Neb. He attended various colleges and universities and received the bachelor and master's degrees in electrical engineering, followed by a doctorate. He was an instructor at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and an assistant professor at the Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College. In the military service he became a major.

As a radio engineer with the Signal Corps, Dr. Coe was engaged in high-speed transoceanic radio work, airways control, and in the development of aircraft electronics equipment, serving at Schenectady, Honolulu, and Wright Field. As an electronics engineer with the Navy Department, he served successively in the development of airborne electronics equipment, of substitute materials, of receivers less vulnerable to man-made and natural noise fields, of measuring equipment for determining intensity and reaction time of explosives, telemetering of bombs and missiles, and miscellaneous measurements incidental to testing pilotless aircraft.

Dr. Coe has been on the national membership committee of the AIEE and on the test procedures subcommittee of the Radio Technical Committee for Aeronautics. He presently heads the Internal Instrumentation Branch at the U. S. Naval Air Missile Test Center, Point Mugu, Calif.

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C. F. CRANDELL

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JOHN HESSEL

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Commissioned a major in the Signal Corps in 1942, Mr. Hessel served two years overseas as Deputy Director of the Technical Liaison Division, Office of the Chief Signal Officer, European Theater of Operations, and with the Seacoast Artillery Evaluation Board. He was decorated with the Legion of Merit in 1945, with an Oak Leaf Cluster in 1946, and discharged with the rank of colonel, Signal Corps Reserve in 1946.

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From 1939 to 1943 Mr. Santo did maintenance work for the Toronto Studios of the CBC From 1943 to date he has been with the Transmission and Development Department of the CBC in Montreal. He is a member of the Corporation of Professional Engineers of Quebec.

Abstracts and References

Prepared by the National Physical Laboratory, Teddington, England, Published by Arrangement with the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, England, and *Wireless Engineer*, London, England

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ACOUSTICS AND AUDIO FREQUENCIES

016:534 2684

References to Contemporary Papers on Acoustics—A. Taber Jones. (*Jour. Acous. Soc. Amer.*, vol. 20, pp. 350–355; May, 1948.) Continuation of 2118 of September.

534.213:532.584 2685

The Absorption of Sound in Suspensions of Irregular Particles—R. J. Urick. (*Jour. Acous. Soc. Amer.*, vol. 20, pp. 283–289; May, 1948.) For small spherical particles, the greater part of the absorption can be attributed to the viscous drag between the fluid and the particles in the sound field; the absorption thus found agrees with that obtained otherwise by Lamb. Experimental results for suspensions of irregular particles of sand and kaolin, obtained by a pulse-reflection method at megacycle frequencies, agree approximately with the idealized theory as the particle size, viscosity, and frequency are varied.

534.23/.24 2686

Reflection and Transmission of Sound by a Spherical Shell—J. B. Keller and H. B. Keller. (*Jour. Acous. Soc. Amer.*, vol. 20, pp. 310–313; May, 1948.) A modification of Rayleigh's method for the reflection of a plane wave by an infinite plate of finite thickness is applied to obtain an exact solution for a spherical shell with the sound source at the center. Agreement is obtained with the results of Primakoff and Keller (912 of May).

534.241:534.213 2687

Reflection of Sound from Coastal Sea Bottoms—L. N. Liebermann. (*Jour. Acous. Soc. Amer.*, vol. 20, pp. 305–309; May, 1948.) Values of the reflection coefficient were obtained experimentally for ultrasonic waves at grazing incidence. The reflection coefficient appears to depend on the average and relative size of the particles, and on bottom topography.

534.321.9:538.569.4:546.212 2688

The Origin of Ultrasonic Absorption in Water—Hall. (*See* 2774.)

534.78 2689

Effects of High Pass and Low Pass Filtering on the Intelligibility of Speech in [fluctuation] Noise—I. Pollack. (*Jour. Acous. Soc. Amer.*, vol. 20, pp. 259–266; May, 1948.) Discussion of articulation tests, using speech of limited frequency range, in the presence of fluctuation noise having a level of 81.5 db above 0.0002 dyne/cm². The Bell Telephone Laboratories' method for computing the articulation index was found to be adequate for assessing the efficiency of communication systems. The relative contribution of the higher speech frequencies to the articulation increased with the intensity level of the speech signal.

534.78 2690

Speech Communication under Conditions of Deafness or Loud Noise—W. G. Radley. (*Jour. IEE* (London), part I, vol. 95, pp. 201–212; May, 1948. Discussion, pp. 212–216.) A theoretical study indicates that when speech has to be very loud in order to be distinguished, the greatest intelligibility can usually be expected if the amplification varies with frequency in a manner indicated graphically by J. O. Ackroyd in an appendix. This was confirmed by tests on a large number of deaf people.

The noise level in some armored fighting vehicles, and the effectiveness of ear pads in excluding the noise, are discussed. The over-all amplifications versus frequency characteristics of the intercommunication and radio telephone systems for such vehicles are considered. For optimum results, the response should have no sudden changes with frequency.

534.833.4 2691

Absorption-Frequency Characteristics of Plywood Panels—P. E. Sabine and L. G. Ramer. (*Jour. Acous. Soc. Amer.*, vol. 20, pp. 267–270; May, 1948.)

534.851 2692

Balanced Clipper Noise Suppressor—S. L. Price. (*Audio Eng.*, vol. 32, pp. 13–16, 37; March, 1948.) Design details of a circuit for the suppression of surface noise without any sacrifice of high-frequency fidelity. Development work is discussed and a diagram is given of the

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circuit finally adopted, with a frequency-response curve for normal suppression at maximum output. See also 3006 of 1947 (Scott) and 1233 of June (Goodell).

534.851:621.396.645.029.3:621.395.813 2693

An Amplifier and Noise-Suppressor Unit—Scott and Dyett. (*See* 2759.)

534.851.6 2694

Misconceptions about Record Wear—N. C. Pickering. (*Audio Eng.*, vol. 32, pp. 11–14, 47; June, 1948.) For minimum record wear, a highly compliant pickup of low moving mass and with a highly polished diamond stylus is preferable. Arm friction and turntable vibration should be avoided and tracking pressure should be low. Some improvement can be effected at the expense of the very high frequencies by introducing compliance between the stylus and the moving system. Lacquer and vinylite disks do not show wear as readily as shellac records, but are much more susceptible to surface dirt and are easily damaged by a worn stylus. Tests indicate that with standard commercial records, a stylus radius of 0.003 inch or larger produces more rapid wear than one of radius 0.0023 to 0.0025 inch.

534.86:534.322.1 2695

Influence of Reproducing System on Tonal-Range Preferences—H. A. Chinn and P. Eisenberg. (Proc. I.R.E., vol. 36, pp. 572–580; May, 1948.) An investigation of listeners' preferences when the transmission system is compensated for the changes in the response of the ear with loudness level. The main conclusions are: (a) A wide frequency range is not preferred even with a fully compensated system. (b) A similar bandwidth is favored for both uncompensated and compensated systems. (c) Bass is preferred to high frequencies in music; sibilance in speech is disliked. (d) Changes other than compensation in the reproducing system do not affect tonal range preferences. See also 3567 of 1945, 612 of 1947, and 1236 of June (Olson).

534.86:534.322.1 2696

Optimum Frequency Range—J. Moir. (*Electronic Eng.* (London), vol. 20, pp. 98–99; March, 1948.) Discussion of the results of Olson's listener preference tests (10 of February). For earlier work see 1185 of 1947.

534.862.4:621.396.665 2697

A Modern Sound-Reinforcement System for Theaters—C. E. Talley and R. W. Kautzky (*Jour. Soc. Mot. Pic. Eng.*, vol. 50, pp. 149–161; February, 1948.) Description of a system used at the Roxy Theatre, New York, N. Y., which includes a control console of unusual design, equipped with mixers and volume controls of a new type. Stereophonic reproduction is also discussed.

534.87 2698

The Magnetostrictive Radial Vibrator—L. Camp. (*Jour. Acous. Soc. Amer.*, vol. 20, pp. 289–293; May, 1948.) A vibrator for underwater sound signaling. Operating characteristics are specified. A plastic cast to protect the windings improves rather than decreases the potential efficiency.

534.87:621.395.61/.62 2699

Characteristics of Stepped-Frequency Transducer Elements—F. P. Bundy. (*Jour. Acous. Soc. Amer.*, vol. 20, pp. 297–304; May, 1948.) Transducers for underwater signaling made up of elements tuned to slightly different frequencies, to produce a broad response curve, are no more efficient than more heavily damped single-frequency elements. They have also a more irregular frequency and phase response.

534.88(26.03):621.396.932 2700

Sofar [sound fixing and ranging]—Stifler and Saars. (*See* 2797.)

621.395.61/.62 2701

A New Electro-Acoustic Transducer—G. Bradfield. (*Electronic Eng.* (London), vol. 20, pp. 74–78; March, 1948.) Instead of traversing and re-traversing a path of limited length in the transducer, the wave is here generated at a point remote from the ends of the body in which it is propagated; it gives rise to two waves moving in opposite directions, one of which is propagated freely in the body and does not interfere with the other, which is launched from the end of the body, and can be used for exploration. Apparatus generating such waves is illustrated and described in detail. Its mode of operation is discussed, and oscillograms of various test pieces are included. The apparatus has been applied to determining the thickness of a concrete slab.

621.395.623.7 2702

Single-Diaphragm Loudspeakers—A. C. Barker. (*Wireless World*, vol. 54, pp. 217–219; June, 1948.) A composite moving coil is used, consisting of an energized primary coil and a closed-turn secondary energized by induction. The secondary is separated from the primary by a resilient material which permits relative movement at high frequencies. The secondary thus gives improved high-frequency response and provides magnetic damping at low frequencies. An improved type of cone is described.

621.395.623.7 2703

The Energy Transformation in Electrodynamic Loudspeakers—E. Synek. (*Radio Tech.* (Vienna), vol. 23, nos. 2 and 3, pp. 124 ff.; 1947; and vol. 24, no. 5, pp. 232–236; May, 1948.) Electromechanical relations are first considered. By transformation of the fundamental equations for cone loudspeakers and by use of electroacoustic analogies, an equivalent system is derived from which the current distribution, the various losses, the radiation, and the frequency characteristics are easily obtained. It is found that, below the fundamental resonance frequency, the radiation falls off very rapidly; at resonance it has a high maximum and above the resonance frequency it is practically constant throughout a relatively wide frequency band. Nonlinear distortion can be minimized by suitable design and by avoiding overloading. The absolute value of the efficiency and its dependence on frequency are also derived by means of an equivalent system. The efficiency, except for a small range near the resonance frequency, is extraordinarily small, and the current heating losses in the moving coil exceed the radiated acoustic power. For the electrodynamic cone loudspeaker, only increase of the air-gap flux can give an appreciable increase of efficiency.

621.395.623.8 2704

The Problem of Sound Distribution: Part 1—O. L. Angevine, Jr., and R. S. Anderson. (*Audio Eng.*, vol. 32, pp. 18–23; June, 1948.) Discussion of the planning of complete sound systems for speech or music either indoors or outdoors. Graphs assist in determining the loudspeaker power required for assigned intensity levels.

621.395.623.8 2705

Three-Way Speaker System—G. A. Douglas. (*Audio Eng.*, vol. 32, pp. 15, 47; June, 1948.) Two series-type dividing networks are connected in cascade to give low-pass, band-pass, and high-pass transmission characteristics suited to the three loudspeakers, with crossovers at 500 and 3000 cps. The method of obtaining correct phasing is described briefly.

621.395.625 2706

The Recording and Reproduction of Sound: Parts 14–17—O. Read. (*Radio News*, vol. 39, pp. 72–73, 120; 60–61, 187; 65–67, 170; and 52–53, 126; April to July, 1948.) Part 14: Discussion of phonograph pickup tracking error, groove skating, and record wear. Part 15: Theory, design, and construction of a dynamic noise suppressor unit having standard parts. Part 16: Performance testing of voltage and power amplifiers used in recording units. Part 17: A study of the decibel. For earlier parts see 2441 of October and back references. To be continued.

621.395.625.2 2707

Increasing Volume Level in Disc Recording—E. Cook. (*Audio Eng.*, vol. 32, pp. 17–20, 38; March, 1948.) The average recorded level can be increased by 6 to 12 db if two limiting amplifiers working on different parts of the af spectrum are used. The response versus frequency characteristic of the recording channel is modified during high-level bursts, giving a marked improvement in apparent dynamic range.

621.395.625.2:621.395.667 2708

A Bass Correction Circuit for Moving Coil Pickups—N. Winder. (*Electronic Eng.* (London), vol. 20, pp. 187–189; June, 1948.) Complete circuit details, with the calculated response curves, for a pre-amplifier stage. A high-pass circuit, in which $|X_c| = \frac{1}{2}R$ and $|X_L| = R$, is used for negative feedback in the cathode circuit of a pentode tube. The anode wave form is constant down to any given frequency, with a sensibly linear increase for the lower three octaves or more, according to circuit values. See also 833 of 1946 (Haines).

621.395.625.6 2709

Synthetic Sound on Film—R. E. Lewis and N. McLaren. (*Jour. Soc. Mot. Pic. Eng.*, vol. 50, pp. 233–247; March, 1948.) An analysis of both hand-drawn and machine-made sound tracks.

621.395.667:621.396.611.3 2710

RC Circuits as Equalizers—Dahl. (*See* 2742.)

621.395.92 2711

The Comparative Performance of an Experimental Hearing Aid and Two Commercial Instruments—C. V. Hudgins, R. J. Marquis, R. H. Nichols, Jr., G. E. Peterson, and D. A. Ross. (*Jour. Acous. Soc. Amer.*, vol. 20, pp. 241–258; May, 1948.) Discussion of systematic articulation tests with hard-of-hearing subjects as listeners. For most listeners, the experimental hearing aid, described in an appendix, was found to be superior to the commercial instruments.

621.396.611 2712

A New Electro-Mechanical Oscillator and Resonator—P. J. Neilson. (*Marconi Rev.*, vol. 11, pp. 14–16; January to March, 1948.) The resonant properties of a mild steel ring can be used for fundamental or harmonic frequencies above 1 kc. A curve is given relating frequency and thickness for a given diameter of annulus. In a particular case, the temperature coefficient of frequency was $+160\times10^{-6}$ per °C at 2550 cps with a Q value in excess of 1000.

534.78 2713

Visible Speech [Book Review]—R. K. Potter, G. A. Kopp, and H. C. Green. D. Van Nostrand, New York, N. Y., and Macmillan, London, 1947, 441 pp., 25s. (*Nature* (London): vol. 161, p. 334; March 6, 1948.) A detailed treatment of the major results and development to date. "Can be unreservedly recommended to all those who have a specialist's interest in speech sounds, and in particular, to those who are intimately concerned with the interests of the deaf."

621.395.92 2714

Hearing Aids [Book Review]—H. Davis, S. S. Stevens, R. H. Nichols, Jr., C. V. Hudgins, R. J. Marquis, G. E. Peterson, and D. A. Ross. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1947, 197 pp., $2.00. (*Electronics*, vol. 21, pp. 242–243; June, 1948.) The results of war-time work on the adaptation of hearing aids to individual users. Intelligibility tests were conducted on 18 hard-of-hearing men and women; tone quality and ease of listening were not considered. Conclusions from the results do not agree with the general experience of the reviewers.

ANTENNAS AND TRANSMISSION LINES

621.315 2715

On the Theory of a Coaxial Spiral Line—. N. Loshakov and E. B. Ol'derogge. (*Radiotekhnika* (Moscow), vol. 3, pp. 11–20; March and April, 1948. In Russian.)

621.315.212:621.317.333.4 2716

Pulse Techniques in Coaxial Cable Testing—Roberts. (*See* 2842.)

621.315.68.011.2 2717

The Characteristic Impedance of Cable Junctions.—P. G. Violet. (*Frequenz*, vol. 2, pp. 80–82; March, 1948). Formulas applicable to coaxial cables are derived.

621.392.029.64 2718

Structure of a Wave of Phase Velocity *c*—A. Abragam. (*Compt. Rend. Acad. Sci.* (Paris), vol. 226, pp. 1356–1357; April 26, 1948.) Theory shows that only waves of phase velocity equal or nearly equal to *c* (the velocity of light) can impart large amounts of energy to an electron in an ordinary accelerator. Discussion of waves propagated axially in a waveguide shows that waves of phase velocity *c* cannot, in general, be obtained by combining a *TM* wave with a *TE* wave. The properties of waves with phase velocity *c* are discussed. Transverse effects become negligible for the case of symmetry of revolution.

621.392.029.64 2719

Directional Couplers—W. H. Watson. (Proc. I.R.E., vol. 36, p. 632; May, 1948.) A basic combination of slots described in 1855 of August (Riblet and Saad) has previously been recorded in the author's publications noted in 1360 and 2689 of 1947.

621.392.029.64 2720

Properties and Applications of Waveguides of Oval Section—M. Jouguet. (*Compt. Rend. Acad. Sci.* (Paris), vol. 226, pp. 1515–1517; May 10, 1948.) By use of a section of nearly circular waveguide of suitable length and cross section, a wave with plane polarization can be transformed into a wave of the same type, but with the plane of polarization rotated through any required angle. A plane-polarized wave can also be transformed into one with elliptical polarization of any ellipticity. Applications are described in which these principles are used for the transmission of waves round elbows of any total angle.

The remarkable property, that the attenuation of H_0 waves decreases with increase of frequency, does not hold when the waveguide section ceases to be exactly circular, because the least deformation of the cross section of the waveguide causes a longitudinal current to appear, with a consequent attenuation which increases with frequency. See also 2724 below.

621.392.029.64:512.831 2721

Reflections from Circular Bends in Rectangular Wave Guides—Matrix Theory—S. O. Rice. (*Bell Sys. Tech. Jour.*, vol. 27, pp. 305–349; April, 1948.) A general matrix theory is developed for propagation in waveguides, and applied to *E*- and *H*-bends in a guide of rectangular cross section. The application of the method involves considerable computation. Approximate solutions are derived which apply strictly to large radii of curvature but which appear to be useful for rather sharp bends. These solutions agree with those previously derived by other methods.

621.392.029.64:513.3 2722

Geometry of Rectangular Waveguides—. C. Bartlett. (*Wireless Eng.*, vol. 25, pp. 202–210; July, 1948.) Discussion of transmission, critical wavelengths, resonant wavelengths, attenuation, H_{0n} and H_{m0} modes, etc., etc., for waveguides in vacuo or containing dispative dielectric. All results are obtained by simple geometrical constructions based on geometrical properties implied in the standard waveguide formulas and equations.

621.392.029.64:621.3.09 2723

Note on the Propagation of Electromagnetic Waves in a Cylindrical Waveguide—R. Rigal. (*Onde Élec.*, vol. 28, pp. 158–163; April, 1948.) A simplified treatment based on a fundamental theorem, proof of which is given, and on a generalization of the concept of phase velocity. Expressions are derived for the cutoff frequency and the impedance for *TM* and *TE* waves. The case of H_{01} waves in a guide of rectangular section is considered briefly.

621.392.029.64:621.3.09 2724

Wave Propagation in a Guide of Nearly Circular Section—M. Jouguet. (*Compt. Rend. Acad. Sci.* (Paris), vol. 226, pp. 1436–1438; May 3, 1948.) Detailed discussion of the principal and secondary effects of slight deformation of a waveguide from an exactly circular shape shows that all waves resulting from an E_p wave in the circular waveguide, except the E_0 and H_0 waves, are unstable. Numerical calculation shows that the effects of the instability are considerable. As regards the secondary effects, each of the two waves which correspond to a given wave can be regarded as the superposition of a principal wave of the same type and of perturbations of small amplitude. See also 2000 of 1947 and 2720 above.

621.392.029.64.012.8 2725

***E*-Plane Bend**—J. W. Miles. (Proc. I.R.E., vol. 36, p. 632; May, 1948). It is admitted that results described in Radiation Laboratory (MIT) Report 43, dated July 2, 1944, are more accurate than those in the author's paper noted in 648 of April.

621.396.67 2726

Short Receiving-Antenna Design Factors—H. Kees. (*Communications*, vol. 28, pp. 26–27, 35; May, 1948.) Discussion of design problems for aircraft and other antennas with an electrical length less than about 10 ft at standard broadcasting frequencies.

621.396.67 2727

Antenna Pattern Measurement—H. R. Skifter and J. S. Prichard. (*Communications*, vol. 28, pp. 26–28, 43; March, 1948.) Discussion of various methods and short description of a scale-model system of measurement.

621.396.67:517.512.2 2728

The Fourier Transform of the Incomplete Gaussian Function—Millington. (*See* 2833.)

621.396.671 2729

Radiation Resistance of an Antenna with Arbitrary Current Distribution—C. J. Bouwkamp. (*Philips Res. Rep.*, vol. 1, pp. 65–76; January, 1946.) The radiation resistance is expressed as the integral of a function which depends in a very simple way on the antenna current distribution. It is thus possible to calculate the radiation without knowledge of the radiation pattern. The formula is applied to many "classical" cases and the results are compared with those of other authors.

621.396.671 2730

The Problem of Optimum Antenna Current Distribution—C. J. Bouwkamp and N. G. de Bruijn. (*Philips Res. Rep.*, vol. 1, pp. 135–158; January, 1946.) La Paz and Miller (2138 of 1943) define the theoretical optimum current distribution in a vertical antenna of given length as that current distribution which gives the maximum possible field strength on the horizon for a given power output. It is shown that this problem of optimum current distribution has no "exact" solution.

A method is here developed to realize any given vertical radiation pattern by suitable choice of the current distribution. This gives theoretical distributions far better than the "optimum distributions" of La Paz and Miller. See also 2732 below.

621.396.677 2731

Note on the Maximum Directivity of an Antenna—H. J. Riblet. (Proc. I.R.E., vol. 36, pp. 620–623; May, 1948.) "It has been shown by Bouwkamp and de Bruijn [2730 above] that the directivity of a linear current distribution of fixed length may be made arbitrarily large. By a slight extension of their arguments, the same conclusion is demonstrated for a two-dimensional current distribution and for a distribution of current on an infinite strip."

621.396.677:621.317.733 2732

Transmission-Line Bridge—Westcott. (*See* 2854.)

621.396.679.4 2733

Feeding the Beam with Inductively Coupled Loops—H. E. Stewart. (*CQ*, vol. 4, pp. 42–47, 70; March, 1948.) The driven element of a parasitic array can be inductively coupled to its transmission line by means of two loops coaxial with the vertical shaft on which the antenna system rotates. The theory of inductive coupling, as applied to antennas, is discussed. This method can also be used as an impedance transforming device. Practical data are included.

CIRCUITS AND CIRCUIT ELEMENTS

621.3.018.12 2734

Phase—"Cathode Ray." (*Wireless World*, vol. 54, pp. 187–190 and 227–230; May and June, 1948.) An elementary discussion.

621.392 2735

On a Remarkable Property of the Bridged-T Line and Its Application to the Calculation of the Powers Distributed in the Branches of this Line.—C. Kafian. (*Radio Franç.*, pp. 18–20 and 11–14; March and April, 1948.) Methods of calculation of bridged-T lines are usually rather long, or require a knowledge of general network theory. Starting from a Γ line, simple theory shows that for the bridged-T line, the potential of the midpoint is equal to the output potential. This property greatly simplifies the calculation of the powers distributed in the different branches of the line. Simple relations between these powers are derived and curves are given from which the maximum power dissipated in the various branches can be found for bridged-T lines with linear attenuation variation.

621.392 2736

The Response of a Linear Diode-Voltmeter to Single and Recurrent R. F. Impulses of Various Shapes—R. E. Burgess. (*Jour. IEE* (London), part III, vol. 95, pp. 106–110; March 1948.) "The response to a short single impulse of arbitrary shape is evaluated in terms of the time integral or area of its envelope. The ratio of this area to the peak amplitude is termed the effective duration of the impulse." The response to recurrent impulses whose spacing is small compared with the discharge time constant is expressed in a general manner; graphs are given for the cases of rectangular and triangular impulses. The "effective charge time constant" of the voltmeter depends on impulse and circuit parameters. The rectification efficiency for triangular impulses lies between 0.75 and 1.0 times that for rectangular impulses of the same effective duration and periodicity.

The maximum indication of a critically damped meter corresponding to the rectified voltage produced by the application of a single impulse is evaluated in terms of the ratio of the meter and discharge time constants.

The damping imposed by the diode rectifier on a sharply tuned circuit is calculated for single and recurrent impulses; it is considerably greater than for continuous waves.

621.392:003.62 2737

Improving Circuit Diagrams—L. H. Bainbridge-Bell. (*Electronic Eng.* (London), vol. 20, pp. 175–177; June, 1948.) A selection from the recommendations contained in the new edition of Inter-Service Standard Graphical Symbols is given, with comments and illustrative diagrams. See also 2030 of 1947 (Keen), and 3812 of 1947 for which the above U. D. C. would have been preferable.

621.392:621.314.2 2738

On the Generation of Two Out-of-Phase Voltages—H. Thiede. (*Funk und Ton*, vol. 2, pp. 219–222; May, 1948.) The conditions are determined for obtaining two voltages of the same amplitude but of different phases, from two in-phase voltages of different amplitudes. The particular case is considered where the amplitudes of the in-phase voltages are proportional to the sine and cosine of an angle.

621.395.665.1 2739

Surgeless Volume Expansion—A. A. Tomkins. (*Wireless World*, vol. 54, pp. 234–235; June, 1948.) Description of a circuit using an auxiliary tube which is modulated in parallel with the expander tube by variations of the bias on the suppressor grids. The auxiliary tube screen grid is connected to the expander tube anode and the total current measured at this anode thus remains constant. No distortion was apparent for inputs up to $\frac{1}{4}$v from 20 to 16,000 cps.

621.396.611.1:517.942.932 2740

Forced Oscillations in Nearly Sinusoidal Systems—M. L. Cartwright. (*Jour. IEE* (London), part III, vol. 95, pp. 88–96; March, 1948; summary, *ibid.*, part I, vol. 95, p. 223; May, 1948.) The behavior, near resonance, of the solutions of the equation

$$\ddot{v}-(\alpha+\beta v-\gamma v^2)\dot{v}+\omega^2 v=E\omega_1^2 \sin \omega_1 t$$

where α/ω, β/ω and γ/ω are small, has been discussed by Appleton, van der Pol and others. A more complete discussion is given of the synchronized and quasiperiodic solutions near resonance, their phases, amplitudes and energy, and also the passage from one stable solution to another as the parameters of the system vary. The phase and amplitude favorable to synchronization are prolonged just before synchronization. This agrees with Appleton's experimental results. Hysteresis also occurs. "The decrease in energy with decrease in detuning is explained by the fact that the phase favorable to synchronization is that which opposes the motion and is prolonged."

621.396.611.21:549.514.51 2741

Quartz Crystals—Fielding. (*See* 2812.)

621.396.611.3:621.395.667 2742

RC Circuits as Equalizers—H. M. Dahl. (*Audio Eng.*, vol. 32, pp. 16–17; June, 1948.) A simplified method of computing the values of circuit components to give the required response curve.

621.396.611.4 2743

Resonant Cavities—A. V. J. Martin. (*Radio Tech. Dig.* (Franç.), vol. 2, pp. 69–83; April, 1948.) General discussion, with formulas for resonance frequency Q and shunt impedance for various types of cavity.

621.396.615 2744

A Selsyn Driven V.F.O.—R. V. McGraw. (*CQ*, vol. 4, pp. 17–20, 92; March, 1948.) A remote-controlled variable-frequency master oscillator which is sufficiently well screened for simultaneous operation with a receiver on the same frequency. This enables the transmitter to be keyed at a stage following the oscillator, with a consequent improvement in the keyed wave form.

621.396.615.17 2745

Milli-Microsecond Pulse Generation by Electron Bunching—J. B. Hasted. (*Proc. Phys. Soc.*, vol. 60, p. 397; April 1, 1948.) Details of a method for producing pulses of duration 10^{-9} sec or less by bunching electrons with alternating voltages of frequency 210 Mc. The electronic arrangement consists essentially of a klystron in which the resonant catcher is replaced by a nonresonant collector in the form of a coaxial line. Satisfactory agreement is found between experimental results and Harrison's mathematical theory of electron bunching (617 of March). The theoretical pulse width is of the order of 2×10^{-10} sec, with spacing about 5×10^{-9} sec. It is hoped to verify these figures with viewing equipment. The device is expected to be capable of supplying pulses of variable width and of duration short enough for testing wide-band coincidence counting circuits.

621.396.615.17 2746

Linear Saw-Tooth Generators—A. W. Keen. (*Wireless Eng.*, vol. 25, pp. 210–214; July, 1948.) By including a constant-current charging tube in the discharge-circuit loop, a circuit is obtained whose linearity and fly-back time are satisfactory over a wide frequency range. Only two tubes are required. The charging tube assists the discharge tube during the fly-back period.

621.396.615.17 2747

Multivibrator Step-Down by Fractional Ratios—K. H. Davis. (*Bell Lab. Rec.*, vol. 26, pp. 114–118; March, 1948.) Step-down by rational ratios such as 1789 to 121 is possible by application of feedback to multistage multivibrators. Typical circuits are analyzed.

621.396.615.17:518.4 2748

Multivibrator Design by Graphic Methods—A. E. Abbot. (*Electronics*, vol. 21, pp. 118–120; June, 1948.) Curves are given for commonly used tubes. All phenomena affecting circuit operation are taken into account.

621.396.615.17:621.317.755 2749

Improving Fly-Back Time on a Miller Time-base—V. Attree. (*Electronic Eng.* (London), vol. 20, p. 97; March, 1948.) By means of a cathode follower, fly-back time may be reduced by a factor of approximately 100 for sweep durations greater than 1 ms.

621.396.615.17:621.317.755 2750

A Linear Hard-Valve Time-Base for Oscilloscopes—(*Radio and Electronics* (Wellington, N. Z.), vol. 3, pp. 4–8, 48; April 1, 1948.) A 3-tube time-base unit which generates an accurately linear sweep. The ratio of fly-back time to sweep time is independent of the sweep frequency.

621.396.619.13 2751

Factors Affecting the Frequency Deviation in Reactance-Tube Frequency Modulation Circuits—Chai Yeh and Y. K. Tz'u. (*Chin. Jour. Phys.*, vol. 7, pp. 72–80; December, 1947.) Theoretical discussion of the frequency deviation of both inductive and capacitive circuits as affected by the phase-shift constants and the L/C ratio of the oscillator tank circuit. Experimental results are in fair agreement with theory.

621.396.645 2752

Constant Amplification in Spite of Changeability of the Circuit Elements—J. J. Zaalberg van Zelst. (*Philips Tech. Rev.*, vol. 9, no. 10, pp. 309–315; 1947 and 1948.) Methods of making the amplification depend very little on tube slope were discussed in 3063 of 1947. Here the problem of keeping amplification constant within limits narrower than the tolerances of other variable circuit elements is solved similarly. Circuits can thus be made with an amplification per tube of say 8 ± 1 per cent for a tolerance of ±5 per cent in component ratings. A number of such stages can be placed in cascade.

621.396.645 2753

Wide-Band Amplification—L. Ratheiser. (*Radio Tech.* (Vienna), vol. 24, pp. 200–204; May, 1948.) Discussion of (a) direct and (b) carrier-frequency amplification, with design methods for practical amplifiers and charts for determining the numerical values of circuit components.

621.396.645 2754

Wide-Band Power Amplifiers—J. A. Hodelin. (*Radio Franç.*, pp. 20–25; April, 1948.) Discussion of (a) voltage amplification and compensation circuits; (b) counter-reaction and its use for distortion reduction, stability improvement, increase of bandwidth, and decrease of the internal resistance viewed from the output terminals; (c) transformer and cathode-follower output stages.

621.396.645 2755

High Quality Amplifier with the 6AS7G—C. G. McProud. (*Audio Eng.*, vol. 32, pp. 21–24; March, 1948.) The twin-triode 6AS7G is discussed briefly; a circuit diagram and performance details are given which show that this tube is an ideal substitute for a pair of conventional tubes in the output stage of an amplifier. See also 2756 below.

621.396.645 2756

General Purpose 6AS7G Amplifier—C. G. McProud. (*Audio Eng.*, vol. 32, pp. 24–29; June, 1948.) Modifications of the amplifier referred to in 2755 above are described, to provide bass and treble tone controls, a dynamic noise suppressor of a modified Scott type (932 of May), a high-gain input stage, and connections for a recorder. Unit construction makes the instrument readily adaptable.

621.396.645:537.533.9 2757

Insulator Amplifies Current 500 Times—(*Tele-Tech*, vol. 7, pp. 72, 74; March, 1948.) A method of controlling the flow and amplification of electric current, based on the discovery that when beams of electrons are shot at an insulator, such as a diamond chip, electric currents are produced which may be 500 times as large as the current in the original electron beam. See also *Electronics*, vol. 21, pp. 140, 172; April, 1948; and 2575 of October.

621.396.645.011.2 2758

Shunted-Amplifier Input Admittance—A. Shadowitz. (*Elec. Commun.*, vol. 24, pp. 468–477; December, 1947.) A method of calculating the admittance is given, and several cases are worked out for a shunting capacitance. "Application to a frequency modulator is given in detail. Extensions are indicated to the theory of the tuned-plate tuned-grid oscillator, multivibrator, and negative-impedance devices."

621.396.645.029.3:534.851:621.395.813 2759

An Amplifier and Noise-Suppressor Unit—H. H. Scott and E. G. Dyett, Jr. (*FM and Telev.*, vol. 8, pp. 28–30, 44; March, 1948.) Discussion of the performance and characteristics of a 20-w af amplifier for use with the Scott noise suppressor (991 of 1947 and 932 of May). The response is within the proposed RMA limits for the audio equipment of FM or AM broadcast transmitters. A preamplifier is built in, the response of which is designed to equalize the output of magnetic pickups.

621.396.645.371 2760

Quiet High-Gain Amplifier—C. C. Whitehead. (*Wireless World*, vol. 54, pp. 208–210; June, 1948.) A push-pull af amplifier with tone control by negative feedback.

621.396.662 2761

Wavechanging and Tuning in Receivers between 30 and 180 Mcs—L. R. Head. (*Marconi Rev.*, vol. 11, pp. 9–13; January to March, 1948.) Discussion of various factors, such as stray inductance, which affect the range of frequency available with a given tuning capacitor.

621.396.662 2762

Theory and Design of a Cavity Attenuator—J. J. Freeman. (*Jour. Res. Nat. Bur. Stand.*, vol. 40, pp. 235–243; March, 1948.) The fields generated by an arbitrary current distribution exciting a piston-type or cavity attenuator are developed, and symmetrical distributions exciting maximum amplitudes of the dominant mode and minimum amplitudes of unwanted modes are investigated. The relative error in voltage measurement due to spurious modes is computed as a function of spacing between exciting and receiving coils for certain simple current distributions. The relative merits of circular and rectangular attenuator cross sections are discussed.

621.396.69 2763

Operating Characteristics of Film Resistors

—J. Marsten and A. L. Pugh, Jr. (*Tele-Tech*, vol. 7, pp. 46–48, 84; March, 1948.) Long summary of paper read at the Bureau of Standards Symposium on Printed Circuits. See also 1614 of July (Murray).

621.396.813:621.392.015.3 2764
Phase and Amplitude Distortion in Linear Networks—M. J. DiToro. (PROC. I.R.E., vol. 36, p. 623; May, 1948.) Corrections to 1901 of August.

621.397.645:621.397.62 2765
Selectivity in Television Amplifiers: Problems of Sound-Channel Rejection—Cocking. (*See* 2952.)

621.397.645.371 2766
The Steady-State and Transient Analysis of a Feedback Video Amplifier—J. H. Mulligan, Jr., and L. Mautner. (PROC. I.R.E., vol. 36, pp. 595–610; May, 1948.) Analysis of transient and steady-state phenomena, and of the connection between them, for a two-stage amplifier. Design curves are given which determine the necessary amplifier parameters when (a) the percentage transient overshoot is given, together with either the rise time or the net gain, or (b) the overshoot in the steady-state characteristic is given, together with either the frequency for 3-db attenuation or the mid-band gain.

GENERAL PHYSICS

535.317.6 2767
Optical Aberrations in Lens and Mirror Systems—W. de Groot. (*Philips Tech. Rev.*, vol. 9, no. 10, pp. 301–308; 1947 and 1948.) The principal (third-order) aberrations of large-aperture optical systems in general and of the spherical mirror in particular are discussed. All these aberrations, except field curvature, can be eliminated by means of an aspherical correction plate such as that used in the Schmidt system.

537.311.31.029.64 2768
The Conductivity of Metals at Microwave Frequencies—A. B. Pippard, G. E. H. Reuter, and E. H. Sondheimer. (*Phys. Rev.*, vol. 73, pp. 920–921; April 15, 1948.) Criticism of 1345 of June (Serin). The problem is shown to be more complex than is there suggested; a critical value exists for the mean free path of an electron, above which no wave propagation can take place. Different solutions apply to the two regions separated by the critical value.

537.311.4:539.23:621.315.59 2769
The Influence of Surface Films on the Electrical Behavior of Contacts—C. C. Dilworth. (*Proc. Phys. Soc.*, vol. 60, pp. 315–325; April 1, 1948.) The variation of current with voltage at an idealized contact between two crystals of a semiconductor is calculated on the assumption that electrons penetrate the surface barrier by tunnel effect. Comparison with experimental curves for silicon carbide powders leads to the conclusion that these crystals are covered by an insulating surface film. The existence of such a film affects the rectifying properties of the crystal when it is in contact with a metal. It is shown that this can account for the discrepancies observed between experimental curves and those deduced from the simple Schottky theory of rectification.

537.525.83 2770
The Contraction Phenomenon in a Neon Glow Discharge with Molybdenum Cathode—F. M. Penning and J. H. A. Moubis. (*Philips Res. Rep.*, vol. 1, pp. 119–128; January, 1946.)

537.533.9:621.396.645 2771
Insulator Amplifies Current 500 Times—(*See* 2757).

538.566 2772
A Note on Singularities Occurring at Sharp Edges in Electromagnetic Diffraction Theory—C. J. Bouwkamp. (*Physica, 's-Grav.*, vol. 12, pp. 467–474; 1946; summary in *Philips Res. Rep.*, vol. 2, p. 351; October, 1947.) Wave functions u describing diffraction by plane screens can be divided into two classes according as u or $\partial u/\partial n$ vanishes at the surface of the screen. Differentiation with respect to the coordinate n normal to the screen alters the character of the wave function, but tangential differentiation does not, Differentiation also produces singularities at the edge of the screen. Difficulties in electromotive diffraction theory are discussed, with particular reference to solutions by Sommerfeld and Möglich.

538.566 2773
Spherical Waves from a Plane Boundary dividing Two Media—L. Brekhovskikh. (*Zh. Tekh. Fiz.*, vol. 18, pp. 455–472; April, 1948. In Russian.)

538.569.4:534.321.9:546.212 2774
The Origin of Ultrasonic Absorption in Water—L. Hall. (*Phys. Rev.*, vol. 73, pp. 775–781; April, 1, 1948.) The suggested theory relates the absorption in a liquid to the molecular states of packing. Acoustic compression causes some molecules to alter their arrangement, and a time lag in this process causes absorption. The use of this theory to explain the excess absorption in water leads to reasonable agreement with experimental data.

GEOPHYSICAL AND EXTRATERRESTRIAL PHENOMENA

521.15:538.12 2775
Magnetic Field of Massive Rotating Bodies—H. T. H. Piaggio. (*Nature* (London), vol. 161, p. 450; March 20, 1948.) Blackett (3112 of 1947) has suggested that a satisfactory explanation of the proportionality between the magnetic moment and angular momentum of massive rotating bodies would not be found except within the structure of a unified field theory. J. Mariani claims to have provided such an explanation and theory in his "Théorie des champs macroscopiques." Application of the theory to massive rotating bodies gives the desired proportionality between magnetic moment and angular momentum, the earth being supposed to have a positive volume charge compensated by a negative surface charge. The constant of proportionality for the earth, the sun, and the milky way is of the right order of magnitude. Short papers by Mariani have appeared in *Compt. Rend. Acad. Sci.* (Paris), vol. 206, p. 1247; 1938; vol. 211, p. 430; 1940; vol. 218, p. 447 and p. 855; 1944, and in *Cahiers de Physique Théorique* (Paris), part 1, 1945; see also 1927 of August.

521.15:538.12:538.71(24.084) 2776
On the Magnetic Field inside the Earth—A. Gião. (*Compt. Rend. Acad. Sci.* (Paris), vol. 226, pp. 1298–1300; April 19, 1948.) Calculations based on the author's theory (1634 of July and back references) lead to formulas which show that while the horizontal component H of the earth's field decreases with depth, the vertical component V increases. Formulas are given showing the increases to be expected for V in the Transvaal and in Lancashire.

523.16:621.396.822 2777
Radio Noise of Extra-Terrestrial Origin and Its Effect on the Technique of Telecommunications—M. G. Lehmann. (*Onde Élec.*, vol. 28, pp. 164–172 and 200–205; April and May, 1948.) The work of Jansky, Grote Reber, Appleton, Southworth, and Dicke is reviewed. The fundamental principles of thermodynamics necessary for interpreting the results are recalled, noise factor is defined, and a particular method of measuring it is described. The performance of actual uhf receivers is compared with that which would be theoretically possible.

523.53 2778
Radio and Meteorites—R. Jouaust. (*Onde Élec.*, vol. 28, pp. 150–157; April, 1948.) Discussion of radio methods of observation and of the experimental results of many investigators. Theory does not at present account for all the facts.

523.53:621.396.96 2779
Radio Echo Observations of Meteors—J. P. M. Prentice, A. C. B. Lovell, and C. J. Banwell. (*Mon. Not. R. Astr. Soc.*, vol. 107, no. 2, pp. 155–163; 1947.) The apparatus used is described briefly, and the results obtained during the period June to August, 1946, are discussed. For λ 4.2 m, good correlation with observed meteors was obtained for echoes lasting longer than 0.5 sec. Data are included for the daily rate of occurrence, and an approximate quantitative relationship is established between meteoric ionization and echo amplitude. See also 411 of March (Hey and Stewart) and 2780 to 2782 below.

523.53:621.396.96 2780
Radio Echo Observations of the Giacobinid Meteors 1946—A. C. B. Lovell, C. J. Banwell, and J. A. Clegg. (*Mon. Not. R. Astr. Soc.*, vol. 107, no. 2, pp. 164–175; 1947.) An account of observations, on λ 4.2 m, of the echoes produced by the meteor shower of October 10, 1946. Simultaneous visual observations were obtained for 21 of these echoes. The height distribution, duration and amplitude of the echoes are discussed. A 96 per cent decrease in the number of echoes was noted when the radio beam was directed into the radiant. See also 2779 above, 2781 and 2782 below.

523.53:621.396.96 2781
Radar Observations of the Giacobinid Meteor Shower, 1946—J. S. Hey, S. J. Parsons, and G. S. Stewart. (*Mon. Not. R. Astr. Soc.*, vol. 107, no. 2, pp. 176–183; 1947.) An account of observations on λ 5 m. A mean value for the geocentric velocity fo 22.9 km per sec has been deduced from the analysis of 22 tracks. The characteristics of the stronger echoes are outlined. See also 2779 and 2780 above, and 2782 below.

523.53:621.396.96 2782
Characteristics of Radio Echoes from Meteor Trails: Part 1—The Intensity of the Radio Reflections and Electron Density in the Trails—A. C. B. Lovell and J. A. Clegg. (*Proc. Phys. Soc.*, vol. 60, pp. 491–498; May 1, 1948.) Formulas are derived for the intensity of reflected radiation assuming the electrons to be created in a long narrow column, of diameter small compared with the wavelength of the incident radiation. Experimental work is described which confirms the predicted variation of received power for λ 4.2 to 8.3 m, and also, according to preliminary results, for λ 1.4 to 4.2 m. The electron density in the trail can be deduced. See also 2779 to 2781 above.

523.72.029.6:621.396.822 2783
Solar Radiation in the Radio Spectrum: Part 1—Radiation from the Quiet Sun—D. F. Martyn. (*Proc. Roy. Soc. A.*, vol. 193, pp. 44–59; April 22, 1948.) Theory of the emission of thermal radiation from the solar envelope is developed. The Lorentz theory of absorption is used in conjunction with Kirchoff's law to derive the effective temperature of the various regions of the solar disk over the radio spectrum. A maximum effective temperature approaching 10^6°K is found near λ 1 m.

523.72.029.6:621.396.822 2784
An Investigation of Radio-Frequency Radiation from the Sun—M. Ryle and D. D. Vonberg. (*Proc. Roy. Soc. A.*, vol. 193, pp. 98–120; April 22, 1948.) Measurements of solar radiation at frequencies of 175 Mc and 80 Mc are described. Special antennas and receiving equipment enabled solar radiation to be recorded separately from the galactic radiation, and also eliminated errors due to variation of receiver gain or internal noise. The results obtained indicate an equivalent surface temperature of the order of 10^6°K, but values as high as 10^8–10^9°K have been observed during the passage of large sunspots. Measurements of the diameter of the source, by a method analogous

to Michelson's stellar interferometer, show that during periods of very great intensity the radiation originates in an area comparable with that of a sunspot. During periods of increased activity, the radiation is mainly circularly polarized. See also 96 of February.

523.75 2785

On the Structure of the Solar Corona and Chromosphere—H. Bondi, F. Hoyle, and R. A. Lyttleton. (*Mon. Not. R. Astr. Soc.*, vol. 107, no. 2, pp. 184–210; 1947.) The existence of the solar atmosphere is explained on the assumption of the accretion of interstellar material, arriving at the sun with a high energy per unit mass. The steady state of this atmosphere is examined mathematically. The nature of non-steady states is also discussed with particular reference to prominences and other features of the solar atmosphere. See also 2409 of 1947 (Waldmeier).

523.75 2786

Granulation, Magneto-Hydrodynamic Waves, and the Heating of the Solar Corona—H. Alfvén. (*Mon. Not. R. Astr. Soc.*, vol. 107, no. 2, pp. 211–219; 1947.)

537.591 2787

Cosmic Rays: Parts 1 and 2—C. W. Hewlett. (*Gen. Elec. Rev.*, vol. 51, pp. 11–16 and 23–31; March and May, 1948.) A concise account of the various types of cosmic rays and their properties, with methods of investigation and discussion of possible explanations of their origin.

550.384+550.37 2788

Electrical and Magnetic Effects of Marine Currents—(*Observatory*, vol. 68, pp. 55–59; April, 1948.) Report of a Royal Astronomical Society discussion. Measurements of the variation of the vertical component of the earth's magnetic field on opposite sides of a water channel indicate that short-period fluctuations are due to electric currents flowing in the earth, the water channel providing a low-resistance path. Measurements of the electric potential gradient produced in tidal streams by the vertical component are also described.

550.384"1941.06" 2789

A Distinctive Geomagnetic Epoch, 1941 June 9–14—H. W. Newton. (*Observatory*, vol. 68, pp. 60–65; April, 1948.) Description of some world-wide sudden commencements that occurred in June, 1941, between the two intense geomagnetic storms of March and September.

550.384.4 2790

Daily Variation of the Horizontal Magnetic Force at the Magnetic Equator—J. Egedal. (*Nature* (London), vol. 161, pp. 443–444; March 20, 1948.) Discussion of the unusually large variations observed at Huancayo and Kodaikanal. See also 1936 of August.

551.508.94:621.317.32 2791

A Radiosonde Method for Atmospheric Potential Gradient Measurements—Belin. (*See* 2840.)

551.510.52 2792

On the Ionic Equilibrium of the Lower Atmosphere—J. Bricard. (*Compt. Rend. Acad. Sci.* (Paris), vol. 226, pp. 1536–1538; May 10, 1948.) Theoretical treatment, with derivation of a formula for the intensity of ionization.

621.317.792 2793

A Lightning Warning Device—B. F. J. Schonland and P. G. Gane. (*Trand. S. Afr. Inst. Elec. Eng.*, vol. 39, pp. 58–59; February, 1948.) Discussion on 3987 of 1947. R. Davis calls attention to a somewhat similar device noted in 3138 of 1946. See also 2794 below.

621.317.792 2794

The Ceraunometer—P. G. Gane and B. F. G. Schonland. (*Weather* (London), vol. 3, pp. 174–178; June, 1948.) A device to record the number of lightning discharges within a given radius. See also 3987 of 1947, and 2793 above.

551.510.535+551.594.5 2795

Ionospheric Research at College, Alaska, July 1941–June 1946—S. L. Seaton, H. W. Wells, and L. V. Berkner. **Auroral Research at College, Alaska, 1941–1944**—S. L. Seaton and C. W. Malich. Combined in Carnegie Institution of Washington Publication 175, 396 pp., $1.85. (Proc. I.R.E., vol. 36, p. 646; May, 1948.) 335 pages are devoted to hourly values of ionospheric data. 14 pages of tables give zenith auroral intensity measurements. Instruments and instrumental procedures are described fully.

LOCATION AND AIDS TO NAVIGATION

621.396.663 2796

Marconi Multi Channel Visual H.F. Direction Finder Type DFG 28—D. J. Fewings. (*Marconi Rev.*, vol. 11, pp. 1–8; January to March, 1948.) A single spinning goniometer without range switching provides bearings on four channels for frequencies between 3 and 17.5 Mc. The channels are independent both for bearings and for sense and all may work simultaneously, bearings being shown on cathode-ray tubes with linear scales. Spaced vertical mast antennas of the Marconi Adcock type are used with buried feeders; no vertical sense antenna is necessary. A signal-to-noise ratio of 20 db is obtained with signal strengths varying between 0.5 and 6λv/m. The case containing the goniometer and driving motor is specially designed to reduce noise.

621.396.932:534.88(26.03) 2797

Sofar [sound fixing and ranging]—W. W. Stifler, Jr. and W. F. Saars. (*Electronics*, vol. 21, pp. 98–101; June, 1948.) A hyperbolic position-fixing system depending upon the propagation of sound from a small bomb exploded at a critical depth in the ocean. With a combination of three or more receiving stations, the system gives a fix accurate to within 5 miles at a range of 2000 miles. Continuous-monitoring equipment, used to time the arrival of impulses, is described, with sample records.

621.396.96 2798

Principles of Frequency-Modulated Radar—I. Wolff and D. G. C. Luck. (*RCA Rev.*, vol. 9, pp. 50–75; March, 1948.) Principles of operation are discussed in detail and quantitative expressions for the determination of range and speed in terms of the output frequency are derived. The main advantage claimed is that lower peak power is required, the main disadvantages being the slowness of search and the complexity of apparatus required to increase the search speed. To be continued.

MATERIALS AND SUBSIDIARY TECHNIQUES

533.5:621.3.032.53 • 2799

The Effect of Various Treatments on the Stresses in Glass-to-Metal Seals—G. D. Redston and J. E. Stanworth. (*Jour. Sci. Instr.*, vol. 25, pp. 138–140; April, 1948.) The photoelastic method of axial sighting on a bead seal is adapted to the measurement of (a) the variation of seal stress with temperature, (b) the effect of high temperature and of intensified humidity on seal stress. The seal stress versus temperature curve agrees with theory. Most seals are unaffected by humidity; certain types, notably alkali-borosilicate versus tungsten seals show irregular and striking stress changes after one or more humidity cycles.

533.5:621.3.032.53 2800

A Titanium Technique for Metal-Ceramic Seals—H. W. Greenwood. (*Electronic Eng.* (London), vol. 20, p. 100; March, 1948.) Extract by H. W. Greenwood from R. I. Bondley's paper noted in 3917 of 1947.

535.37 2801

Luminescence Efficiency Changes in Zinc Sulphide Phosphors below Room Temperature—G. F. J. Garlick and A. F. Gibson. (*Nature* (London), vol. 161, p. 359; March 6, 1948.) Variation of efficiency at temperatures below that of thermal quenching of luminescence may be either positive or negative, depending on the wavelength of the excitation. Typical curves for a self-activated ZnS phosphor are given and discussed.

535.37 2802

The Temperature Dependence of the Fluorescence of Tungstates and Molybdates in Relation to the Perfection of the Lattice—F. A. Kröger. (*Philips Res. Rep.*, vol. 2, pp. 340–348; October, 1947.)

537.228.1 2803

EDT and DKT Crystals for Carrier Channel Filters—W. P. Mason. (*Bell Lab. Rec.*, vol. 26, pp. 222–225; May, 1948.) A short account of their principal properties and of the methods of cutting to secure a low temperature coefficient of frequency. See also 740 of April.

538.221 2804

The Adiabatic Temperature Changes Accompanying the Magnetization of Some Ferromagnetic Alloys in Low and Moderate Fields.—L. F. Bates and E. G. Harrison. (*Proc. Phys. Soc.*, vol. 60, pp. 213–225; March 1, 1948.) The temperature changes which occur when a ferromagnetic substance is taken through a single hysteresis cycle have been measured for seven ferromagnetic alloys. A cooling effect is observed initially as the magnetization is reduced from its maximum value. Results indicate that large changes in thermomagnetic properties are caused by small changes in composition. See also 896 of 1941 (Bates and Weston) and 2805 below.

538.221 2805

The Adiabatic Temperature Changes Accompanying Magnetization in Low and Moderate Fields: A Further Study of Iron—L. F. Bates and E. G. Harrison. (*Proc. Phys. Soc.*, vol. 60, pp. 225–235; March 1, 1948. Discussion pp. 235–236.) A commercial moving-coil ballistic galvanometer was used with the Bates and Weston method (896 of 1941) of measuring small changes of temperature in the magnetization of iron. Measurements were made on Armco iron, 99.89 per cent pure, and Hilger H. S. electrolytic iron, 99.96 per cent pure. Heat changes associated with the virgin magnetization curve have been measured for the first time. See also 2804 above.

538.221 2806

Supermalloy—(*Bell Lab. Rec.*, vol. 26, pp. 111–113; March, 1948.) A brief general discussion. See also 2802 of 1947 (Boothby and Bozorth).

538.221:621.317.41 2807

The Measurement of the Permeability of Low-Conductivity Ferromagnetic Materials at Centimetre Wavelengths—J. B. Birks. (*Proc. Phys. Soc.*, vol. 60, pp. 282–292; March 1, 1948.) The complex magnetic and dielectric properties of a specimen filling a section of waveguide are derived from standing-wave measurements of the short-circuit and open-circuit impedances of the section. Measurements were made for λ 60 to 1½ cm; typical results for γ-ferric oxide are given. Magnetic dispersion is apparently an inherent property of the material and is not attributable to skin effect.

538.27 2808

The Effect of an Airgap on the Complex Permeability of Coil Cores—R. Feldtkeller and E. Stegmaier. (*Frequenz*, vol. 2, pp. 71–79; March, 1948.) Experimental results for various core materials show how the curves connecting the complex permeability with the amplitude of the ac induction and with the frequency are displaced when an airgap is used. The curves relating the Q of a coil to frequency are displaced toward higher frequencies, in a direction parallel to the frequency axis; the amount of the shift depends on the effective width of the airgap used.

546.23:537.311.33 2809
On the Electrical Conductivity of Selenium Crystals—F. de Boer. (*Philips Res. Rep.*, vol. 2, pp. 352–356; October, 1947.) Values ranging from 2×10^4 to $5\times10^4\Omega$. cm were obtained for the specific resistance of Se monocrystals parallel to the c-axis; it is suggested that the value for a pure monocrystal lies near the lower limit. The specific resistance at right angles to the c-axis was found to be $2\times10^6\Omega$. cm. Experimental results concerning the effect of temperature and pressure on the conductivity are also discussed.

546.431.82:548.5 2810
The Growth of Barium Titanate Crystals—B. Matthias. (*Phys. Rev.*, vol. 73, pp. 808–809; April 1, 1948.) Quantitative data for an advanced growing technique. See also 2535 of October (Walker).

548.0:53 2811
Physical Properties of Crystals and Their Symmetry—M. Tournier. (*Elec. Commun.*, vol. 24, pp. 478–525; December, 1947.) The particular symmetry conditions of various crystalline substances indicate certain phenomena that are likely to take place in the material. A short review of the historical background of piezoelectricity is followed by an introduction to linear transformation theory, tensor algebra and matrix algebra. Proofs of theorems of symmetry are obtained by matrix multiplication. Symmetry in crystals is determine whether the moduli relating physical effects to their causes are finite or zero. Pyroelectricity, dielectric susceptance, piezoelectricity, elasticity, and piezomagnetism are examined in this way. The 32 classes of symmetry in crystals are described and illustrated, and the components of the characteristic tensors are tabulated for each class.

549.514.51:621.396.611.21 2812
Quartz Crystals—E. A. Fielding. (*Proc. RSGB*, no. 3, pp. 1–7; Spring, 1948.) Long summary of RSGB paper. A general discussion of the production of quartz crystal plates, their defects and piezoelectric properties, and of the use of such crystals in resonant circuits and filters.

549.514.51(73) 2813
Domestic Sources of Piezoelectric Quartz—H. H. Waesche. (*Amer. Jour. Sci.*, vol. 246, pp. 182–185; March, 1948.) Discussion of possible American sources of supply other than Brazil.

549.623.5 2814
Mica: Its Preparation and Some Applications—A. E. Williams. (*Engineer* (London), vol. 185, pp. 227–229; March 5, 1948.) An account of the different varieties of mica, their chemical composition, physical properties, and place of origin, with details of the manufacture and properties of micanite.

620.193+620.197 2815
Tropical Proofing of Radio Apparatus for Use in Tropical Climates—(*Radio Component Mfrs' Fed. Tech. Bull.*, vol. 1, pp. 3–5; February, 1948.) In the tropics destructive insects abound, and temperatures of 85 to 90°F with relative humidity 100 per cent are common. The effect on radio and other equipment is discussed. Protective measures are suggested. High-quality components must be used, as radio service hardly exists. See also 2816 below.

621.3(54):[620.193+620.197 2816
Electrical Engineering Problems in the Tropics—R. Allan. (*Jour. IEE* (London), part II, vol. 95, pp. 275–283; June, 1948; summary, *ibid.*, part I, vol. 95, p. 274; June, 1948. Discussion, pp. 283–289.) Full paper; summarized in 1378 of June and 1658 of July.

521.3.013.783†:621.316.97 2817
Screening at V.H.F.—B. Roston. (*Wireless Eng.*, vol. 25, pp. 221–230; July, 1948.) An experimental method of testing the effectiveness of various sprayed and deposited metal surfaces. The change in width of a resonance curve is observed when the screen is introduced the surface resistivity is deduced. Results are given for Cu and Zn sprayed on a plastic base and for Cu and Ni electro deposited on a steel base.

621.3.015.5.029.63/.64:546.217 2818
The Microwave Spark—D. Q. Posin. (*Phys. Rev.*, vol. 73, pp. 496–509; March 1, 1948.) The breakdown of an airgap was studied experimentally for λ 1.25, 3, and 10 cm. The required field is strongly dependent on the width of the pulse, the intensity of initial ionization (as determined by nearby radioactive materials), gap width and pressure, and to a less degree on pulse repetition rate. See also 750 of April (Cooper).

621.315.61 2819
Recent Researches on Insulating Materials—L. Piaux and G. Beauvais. (*Tech. Mod.*, vol. 40, pp. 85–88; March 1 to 15, 1948. In French.) A review, partly from the chemical and partly from the electrical standpoint, of present knowledge of polymer plastics and of ceramics of the titanate groups.

621.315.61:546.287 2820
Silicone Rubbers and Their Use as Insulators in Electrotechnics—M. de Buccar. (*Rev. Gén. Élec.*, vol. 57, pp. 93–102; March, 1948.) A short discussion of their chemical structure and a detailed account of their physical and electrical properties. The wide range of temperature over which the mechanical and electrical characteristics are maintained renders these rubbers particularly useful for extreme operating conditions. Resilience and flexibility are maintained down to about −60°C and cables insulated with silastic have shown no signs of damage after heating to 250°C. Numerous practical applications are mentioned.

621.315.61.011.5 2821
Dielectric Losses—J. Granier. (*Compt. Rend. Acad. Sci.* (Paris), vol. 226, pp. 1354–1356; April 26, 1948.) A modification of Debye's theory leads to a formula representing the "goodness" of a dielectric, which gives results in good agreement with measured values for glycerine and for a phenolic resin.

621.315.616:621.785.545.45 2822
The Hardening of Synthetic Materials in High-Frequency Fields—H. Stäger. (*Brown Boveri Rev.*, vol. 34, pp. 129–138; June and July, 1947.) Results of a comprehensive series of tests on laminated materials and wood/wood bonds. Optimum working conditions are established by which setting time is greatly reduced and maximum strength attained. Synthetic resins with a nitrogen constituent give a wood bond immune to tropical conditions and bacterial attack.

621.315.616:666.18:679.86 2823
Scale Glass as a Substitute for Mica—J. M. Stevels. (*Philips Res. Rep.*, vol. 1, pp. 129–134; January, 1946.) A product composed of small scales, preferably of thickness 1–5μ, which adhere under certain conditions and are formed into plates in distilled water to which is added a little H_3PO_4 and K_2SiO_3. The plates when partly dried are deformable. Various applications are suggested.

621.315.618 2824
New Researches on the Dielectric Strength of Compressed Gases—N. J. Félici and Y. Marchal. (*Rev. Gén. Élec.*, vol. 57, pp. 155–162; April, 1948.) The breakdown properties of gases at ordinary pressure are discussed with particular reference to Townsend's theory. Possible causes of discrepancies with Paschen's law are examined. The apparatus and method used for investigations at potentials up to 250 kv and pressures up to 70 atmospheres are described. Results are tabulated for air and for H_2, with electrodes of different materials. While stainless steel electrodes only give a breakdown strength, in vacuo, of 20 kv/mm, in compressed gases they give values 5 or 6 times greater.

621.316.99 2825
Earthing Problems—R. W. Ryder. (*Jour. IEE* (London), part II, vol. 95, pp. 175–184; April, 1948. Summary, *ibid.*, part I, vol. 95, p. 226; May, 1948.) Discussion of the various factors which affect the resistance of earth electrodes with a review of earthing practice.

621.318.22:621.775.7 2826
Permanent Magnets—S. J. Garvin. (*Elec. Times*, vol. 113, pp. 633–636; May 27, 1948.) Discussion of the properties of various materials, with special reference to the advantages and limitations of the sintering process.

621.791.3:669.715 2827
Soldering Aluminum Alloys—F. W. Thomas and E. Simon. (*Electronics*, vol. 21, pp. 90–92; June, 1948.) The soldering-iron tip is vibrated at an ultrasonic frequency by means of a magnetostriction tube-driven oscillator. Surface oxidation is thus removed. The method can be applied to other surfaces which are difficult to solder normally.

666+669]:621.775.7 2828
Metal Ceramics—H. H. Hausner. (*Metal Ind.* (London), vol. 72, pp. 405–407; May 14, 1948.) A description of the properties of "ceramals," materials formed from ceramic and metal powders. Two groups are considered: (a) mixtures of metallic and ceramic powders, and (b) combinations using different layers of metal powders and ceramic powders. The metal powders in the first group act as producers of free electrons or reducing agents for the ceramic oxides. Different combinations give a wide range of temperature coefficients. The second group includes materials resistant to high temperatures and suitable for use in jet engines and for turbine blades.

666.1 2829
The Physical Properties of Glass in Relation to Its Structure—J. M. Stevels. (*Jour. Soc. Glass Tech.*, vol. 30, pp. 31–53; 1946. Summary in *Philips Res. Rep.*, vol. 2, p. 400; October, 1947.) A discussion of present knowledge of the structure of glass in relation to its density and electrical conductivity.

669.74/.75:621.3.011.2 2830
Study of the Variation of Electrical Resistance with Temperature of MnSB Ferromagnetic Alloy—G. Mannevy-Tassy. (*Compt. Rend. Acad. Sci.* (Paris), vol. 226, pp. 1592–1593; May 19, 1948.) Curves are given showing the resistance variation between −200°C and +650° C. The changes are cyclic up to about 450° C., but if this temperature is exceeded, the resistance for decreasing temperatures is considerably less than for increasing temperatures.

678:[620.193+620.197 2831
Rubber and the Weather—J. Crabtree. (*Bell Lab. Rec.*, vol. 26, pp. 119–123; March, 1948.) A general discussion of the various kinds of damage that can be caused by exposure, and of methods of producing such damage artificially and of preventing it in practice.

MATHEMATICS

513.3:621.392.029.64 2832
Geometry of Rectangular Waveguides—Bartlett. (*See* 2722.)

517.512.2:621.396.97 2833
The Fourier Transform of the Incomplete Gaussian Function—G. Millington. (*Marconi Rev.*, vol. 11, pp. 17–30; January to March, 1948.) The function $G(z/\pi a)=2/\alpha\int_0^k \exp(-y^n)\cos(zy/k)dy$ is considered by studying an allied contour integral. The method of steepest descents is used to obtain asymptotic forms for large values of the argument; a Maclaurin expansion is used for small values. $G(z/\pi a)$ has "side lobes" even for an infinite aperture when $n>2$. The important case when $n=2$ is discussed by an alternative method involving approximate numerical integration of a differential equation; "side lobe" amplitudes are given as functions of the width of the finite aperture.

519.5:[512.25+512.831 2834

An Automatic Simultaneous Equation Computer and Its Use in Solving Secular [i.e. characteristic] Equations—W. A. Adcock. (*Rev. Sci. Instr.*, vol. 19, pp. 181–187; March, 1948.) Discussion of the design of an analogue computer based on a feedback method which is more general than the Gauss-Siedel iteration method discussed on p. 85 of Murray's book [noted in 1074 of May]. Resistive voltage dividers represent the coefficients, and voltages represent the variables, which are automatically adjusted by the feedback system. Accuracy within 1 per cent can be expected. The operation is explained in detail for sets of four equations. Problems where the characteristic equation has repeated roots can be solved. [*Note.* No indication is given of the maximum number of equations and variables for which the method will work.]

518.61 2835

The Approximate Solution of Linear Differential Equations—M. C. Gray and S. A. Schelkunoff. (*Bell Sys. Tech. Jour.*, vol. 27, pp. 350–364; April, 1948.) Examples of the application of a wave perturbation method, illustrating its high accuracy in solving certain equations used in electromagnetic and other problems. See also 1570 of 1946.

519.2:621.385.1 2836

Notes on the Exponential Distribution in Statistics [of valve life]—N. W. Lewis. (*P.O. Elec. Eng. Jour.*, vol. 41, part 1, pp. 10–12; April, 1948.) An elementary account, indicating the relation between the exponential and Poisson distributions.

MEASUREMENTS AND TEST GEAR

53.08+621.3.08 2837

Précis of a Discussion on "Practical Considerations in Instrument Design"—London, 1948.—(*Jour. Sci. Instr.*, vol. 25, pp. 122–124; April, 1948.) Suggestions made included: (a) Scales should be easy to read. (b) Difficulties connected with wear and lubrication may be lessened by substituting rolling spheres or cylinders or sliding constraints. (c) Precision measuring instruments of the future should use inertialess beams of light or cathode rays. The relative merits of kinematic and electrical instruments were discussed and improvements in design detail were suggested. Another account in *Engineer* (London), vol. 185, p. 257; March 12, 1948.

531.76:681.11 2838

Measuring the Rate of Watches with a Cathode-Ray Oscillograph—H. van Suchtelen. (*Philips Tech. Rev.*, vol. 9, pp. 317–320; 1947 and 1948.) By means of a microphone and amplifiers, watch ticks are converted to voltage peaks producing a vertical deflections on a cro. The time base voltage is synchronized with a standard frequency of 60 cps derived from a quartz oscillator by frequency division. The speed at which the voltage peaks move across the cro screen thus gives a measure of the rate error of the watch. Rate errors of a few seconds per day can be determined in a few minutes. See also 1669 of July (Mackay and Soule).

621.317.029.63 2839

Improvements in Decimetre-Wave Measurement Technique—H. H. Meinke. (*Frequenz*, vol. 2, pp. 41–49; February, 1948.) General account of modern methods using concentric transmission lines.

621.317.32:551.508.94 2840

A Radiosonde Method for Atmospheric Potential Gradient Measurements—R. E. Belin. (*Proc. Phys. Soc.*, vol. 60, pp. 381–397; April 1, 1948.) For another account see 1674 of July.

621.317.333+621.317.37]:621.315.212.029.6 2841

The Voltage Characteristics of Polythene Cables—R. Davis, A. E. W. Austen, and W. Jackson. (*Jour. IEE* (London), part III, vol. 95, pp. 111–112; March, 1948.) Discussion on 3179 of 1947.

621.317.333.4:621.315.212 2842

Pulse Techniques in Coaxial Cable Testing—F. F. Roberts. (*P.O. Elec. Eng. Jour.*, vol. 41, part 1, pp. 13–17; April, 1948.) The principles of fault location by pulse technique are discussed. Intermittent faults can be found by display of echoes of 3-μs dc pulses on a cro. Equipment has been developed for measuring small impedance irregularities under conditions similar to those in long-distance television relay systems. This equipment gives 0.3-μs pulses of a 20-Mc carrier, with a spacing of about 500 μs.

621.317.336 2843

A Note on the Lecher Wire Method of Measuring Impedance—M. Williamson. (*Proc. Phys. Soc.*, vol. 60, pp. 388–391; April 1, 1948.) Discussion of factors which affect the accuracy of measurements by Williams' method (1255 of 1944).

621.317.374 2844

On the Determination of the Loss Angle of a Dielectric Inserted in a Double Line—P. Abadie. (*Compt. Rend. Acad. Sci.* (Paris), vol. 226, pp. 1590–1592; May 19, 1948.) Formulas are derived which can be used for frequencies as high as 3000 Mc.

621.317.41:538.221 2845

The Measurement of the Permeability of Low-Conductivity Ferromagnetic Materials at Centimetre Wavelengths—Birks. (*See* 2807.)

621.317.715.5 2846

Anti-Vibration Immersion Galvanometer—M. Picard. (*Rev. Gén. Elec.*, vol. 57, pp. 141–146; April, 1948.) The mean density of the moving system is the same as that of the C_2Cl_4 in which it is immersed, and its center of gravity coincides with the geometric center, so that the instrument is insensitive to all translation acceleration. Sensitivity is not very high, but the robust construction and freedom from shock effects makes the galvanometer particularly useful under conditions which would put other instruments out of action.

621.317.725/.726 2847

Stable Voltmeter Amplifier—J. D. Clare. (*Wireless Eng.*, vol. 25, pp. 231–236; July, 1948.) Analysis of a dc amplifier circuit which can be used either as an electrostatic voltmeter or, with a diode probe, as an ac peak voltmeter. Changes in supply voltages and tube parameters have practically no effect on the meter reading.

621.317.725 2848

Inverted Valve Voltmeter—W. Geyer. (*Arch. Tech.* (Messen), no. 155, T78–79, 4 pp.) June, 1948.) Discussion of the principles and performance of voltmeters in which the voltage to be measured is applied between anode and cathode of a triode tube. For ac voltages, the use of a small voltage transformer with a center-tapped secondary, whose two sections are connected to the anodes of a double triode and to the common cathode, gives greater sensitivity. See also 3974 of 1945 (Foster).

621.317.725.027.7 2849

The Design of an Ellipsoid Voltmeter for the Precision Measurement of High Alternating Voltages—F. M. Bruce. (*Jour. IEE* (London), part II, vol. 95, pp. 364–365; June, 1948.) Discussion on 3584 of 1947.

621.317.728.029.6 2850

Calibration of Uniform-Field Spark-Gaps for High-Voltage Measurement at Power Frequencies—F. M. Bruce. (*Jour. IEE* (London), part II, vol. 95, pp. 364–365; June, 1948.) Discussion on 3585 of 1947.

621.317.73 2851

Direct-Reading Impedance Meter—J. Schifrine. (*Rev. Tech. Comp. Franc., Thomson-Houston*, pp. 31–40; April, 1948.) In French, with English summary.) Theory and circuit details of instruments which give both the real and imaginary components of an impedance. Accuracy is within about 3 per cent. One instrument can measure impedances up to several hundred ohms at frequencies in the range 0 to 10,000 cps, with impedance currents up to 0.5 amp. The second can be used for impedances up to 1 MΩ, has a frequency range of 30 to 10,000 cps, and is independent of the power in the impedance.

621.317.73:621.317.755 2852

Frequency-Scanning VHF Impedance Meter—L. L. Libby. (*Electronics*, vol. 21, pp 94–97) June, 1948.) An instrument designed to display at any instant the impedance versus frequency curve; it can scan rapidly bandwidths up to 30 Mc in the range 10 to 250 Mc. The output, which can be used with any cro is proportional to the amount of energy reflected from the end of a transmission delay line to which the apparatus under test is connected. Details of design are given and the method of operation is described, with an example.

621.317.733 2853

Theory of Wagner Ground Balance for Alternating-Current Bridges—R. K. Cook. (*Jour. Res., Nat. Bur. Stand.*, vol. 40, pp. 245–249; March, 2948.) A method is described for using a Wagner earth with any 3-terminal source for elimination of earth capacitance effects. The basic idea is the insertion of impedances between the two ungrounded terminals of the source and the corresponding terminals of the Wagner earth and the bridge, so as to balance approximately the currents from the source. The method is applicable to high-voltage Schering bridges. A Schering bridge incorporating the principles of the new method is described; this is designed primarily for the measurement of the small capacitances, about 50pF, of some types of capacitor microphone.

621.317.733:621.396.677 2854

Transmission-Line Bridge—C. H. Westcott. (*Wireless Eng.*, vol. 25, pp. 215–220; July, 1948.) Four $\lambda/4$ sections of transmission line are connected in a re-entrant loop, one section containing a transposition of the two feeder wires. Equal loads connected to opposite corners of the loop may be fed simultaneously by two generators connected to the two remaining corners. No interaction occurs between the generators, but by altering their relative phase, the total power can be applied to each load in turn. When this principle is applied to a receiving array, using two receivers as the loads, one receiver may be made to respond to off-target bearings only, and its output used to cancel (at video frequency) the output of the main receiver, resulting in an apparent lobe narrowing. Another application is the production of split beams with a common antenna. The system may be used over a fairly wide frequency range, as its action depends only on symmetry. See also 1355 of 1947 (Taylor and Westcott).

621.317.755:621.396.813 2855

Technique for Distortion Analysis—S. Sabaroff. (*Electronics*, vol. 21, pp. 114–117; June, 1948.) The effect of the circuits under observation on clipped sine waves is displayed on a cro. Typical patterns are reproduced, and simple equipment comprising biased crystal rectifiers is described.

621.317.761 2856

Checking FM Transmitter Frequencies with WWV—R. R. Freeland. (*Communications*, vol. 28, pp. 16–18, 31; May, 1948.) The equipment includes a specially designed secondary standard consisting of a 6F6 oscillator driving a 10-kc multivibrator, which in turn drives a 2-kc multivibrator. Two stages of amplification provide harmonic outputs up to 110 Mc. The transmitter frequency and a standard WWV frequency are both compared with this secondary standard.

621.317.79:621.394.813 2857
The Measurement of Telegraph Distortion—A. B. Shone and R. T. Fatehchand. (*Electronic Eng.* (London), vol. 20, pp. 181–185; June, 1948.) The main features of the BBC "start-stop" distortion measurement set, are the phantastron timebase and the "Multiar." The "start" pulse triggers the timebase; the sweep duration is 125 ms, so that the entire teleprinter signal between successive start pulses can be displayed on a cro. The phantastron output also feeds the Multiar. By adjustment of a calibrated auxiliary voltage, the Multiar will fire at any point on the timebase to produce a bright spot. The auxiliary voltage is regulated by a potentiometer network calibrated from 0 to 130 ms. Distortion can be measured to an accuracy within $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

Details of the phantastron and Multiar circuits, given fully in 985 of May (Williams and Moody), are summarized in an appendix. See also 2478 of October (Close and Lebenbaum).

621.317.79:621.396.615.12:621.395.813 2858
An Improved Intermodulation Measuring System—G. W. Read and R. R. Scoville. (*Jour. Soc. Mot. Pic. Eng.*, vol. 50, pp. 162–173; February, 1948.) Description of an intermodulation analyzer and associated two-signal generator, for measuring distortion in af systems. Paired signals are used; they can be selected in several combinations from 40 to 12,000 cps. The equipment is particularly useful for determining optimum processing conditions for variable-density recording.

621.317.79:621.396.813 2859
The Measurement of Delay Distortion in Microwave Repeaters—D. H. Ring. (*Bell Sys. Tech. Jour.*, vol. 27, pp. 247–264; April, 1948.) IRE 1947 National Convention paper. Description of equipment which can measure delay distortion of the order of 10^{-9} sec in a wide-band television relay repeater. Circuits are discussed (a) for measuring relative phase shift as a function of frequency, from which the delay distortion is computed, (b) for direct delay measurement. The equipment is designed for an if between 50 and 80 Mc but can be adapted for use at microwave frequencies.

621.317.79:621.396.822 2860
Method of Measurement of Noise Ratios and Noise Factors—A. van der Ziel. (*Philips Res. Rep.*, vol. 2, pp. 321–330; October, 1947.) Crystals, tube circuits, and receivers are tested by this method. A saturated diode provides a noise output for use as a test signal, its output level being monitored by a linear amplifier (bandwidth 50 to 100 kc) and a thermocouple.

621.317.79:621.396.97 2861
Monitor for Frequency-Modulation Broadcasting—M. Silver. (*Elec. Commun.*, vol. 24, pp. 428–432; December, 1947.) A detailed description of a monitor designed to meet FCC specifications. Using separate discriminators, center transmission frequency is measured with an error of ± 100 cps under full modulation conditions, and modulation percentage is measured within ± 5 per cent. Noise and distortion monitoring facilities and an overmodulation warning are provided. The inherent noise and distortion in the monitor are estimated.

621.317.794.029.64 2862
The D.C. Thermal Characteristics of Microwave Bolometers—E. Peskin and E. Weber. (*Rev. Sci. Inst.*, vol. 19, pp. 188–195; March, 1948.) A theoretical study of the temperature distribution and variation of resistance of a temperature-sensitive, resistive rod. Both linear and quadratic thermal laws are postulated, and the results are compared with experimental curves for actual bolometers. The sensitivity of resistance to changes in the direct current is defined and computed.

621.319.4.089.6 2863
The Calibration of Capacitors at the National Physical Laboratory, 1947—G. H. Rayner and L. H. Ford. (*Jour. IEE* (London), part II, vol. 95, pp. 312–318; June, 1948. Summary, *ibid.*, part I, vol. 95, p. 234; May, 1948.) Astbury's modification of the Carey-Foster bridge is described briefly and a more detailed account is given of the precision Schering bridge used, in which particular attention is paid to screening. Possible errors are within 1 part in 10^4 for capacitance and 0.002 per cent for power factor when measuring any but the smallest capacitances.

621.396.69.001.4 2864
Tests for the Selection of Components for Broadcast Receivers—G. D. Reynolds. (*Jour. IEE* (London), part III, vol. 95, pp. 54–64; March, 1948. Discussion, pp. 64–68.) Methods are described for finding out whether a given component is suitable for incorporation in a range of radio or television receivers; the results of such tests are surveyed. Fuller details are given for the less usual methods.

621.317.7.029.64 2865
Techniques of Microwave Measurements [Book Review]—C. G. Montgomery (Ed.). McGraw-Hill, New York, N. Y., 1947, 922 pp., $10.00. (Proc. I.R.E., vol. 36, p. 645; May, 1948.) Volume 2 of the Radiation Laboratory series. Laboratory types of measuring equipment are described. "Fourteen authors, each an expert in one or more fields, have contributed to write a complete story. Although complete, it does not pretend to be exhaustive There are numerous references . . . ."

OTHER APPLICATIONS OF RADIO AND ELECTRONICS

533.15:537.534 2866
Vapor Leak Detection by Thermonic Effects—W. C. White and H. S. Hickey. (*Electronic Ind.*, vol. 2, pp. 7–8; March, 1948.) Another account noted in 2303 of September.

534.321.9.001.8:57 2867
Applications of Ultrasonics to Biology—S. Y. White. (*Audio Eng.*, vol. 32, pp. 30, 45; June, 1948.) Discussion of applications to the sterilizing of liquids and also in medical research.

535.61-14/-15 2868
Infra-Red Instrumentation and Techniques—V. Z. Williams. (*Rev. Sci. Instr.*, vol. 19, pp. 135–178; March, 1948.) An extensive summary of instruments and experimental methods used for λ between 2.5 μ and 1 cm. Molecular absorption in the near infrared (2.5 to 25 μ) is discussed, and industrial application of spectrometry in this region described, with details of the sources, dispersive media, optical systems, absorption cells, and detectors used. Photosensitive detectors and grating spectrometers used in the far infrared (up to 350 μ) are described briefly. Some experiments on gaseous absorption in the microwave region are mentioned, in which bolometers, crystals, or radiometers are used as detectors. Infrared filters are described, together with various applications of infrared radiation in pyrometry and military equipment. A bibliography of 210 items is included.

536.53 2869
Electronic Instruments in Temperature Measurement—I. P. Buchanan. (*Aust. Jour. Inst. Tech.*, vol. 3, pp. 88–106; March, 1947.) Only instruments whose actuating elements are thermocouples or resistance thermometers are considered. Two main classes are (a) those for which a galvanometer is the detecting device, but the movement of the pointer is not impeded, (b) the "null" balance type, which has no galvanometer. Several commercial instruments in both classes are described. Tubes used in such instruments should be operated well below their ratings for radio receiver design; a reserve of power is usually available so that aging seldom causes failure.

539.16.08 2870
Modern Geiger-Muller Tubes—O. J. Russell. (*Electronic Eng.* (London), vol. 20, pp. 70–73; March, 1948). A brief discussion of their modes of operation, typical performance figures, and their use for estimating natural potassium, which contains an isotope emitting β rays.

621.317.792 2871
A Lightning Warning Device—Schonland and Gane. (*See* 2793 and 2794.)

621.365.5 2872
Melting Metals by Induction Heating—N. Y. Stansel. (*Gen. Elec. Rev.*, vol. 51, pp. 35–42; March, 1948.) Operation data, electrical features, construction, and applications of coreless-induction and submerged-resistor types of heating equipment.

621.384.6 2873
On the Dynamics of Electrons in a Linear Accelerator—A. Messiah. (*Compt. Rend. Acad. Sci.* (Paris), vol. 226, pp. 1357–1359; April 26, 1948.) Discussion of the effect of fluctuations of the electron velocity, in the neighborhood of the velocity of light on the output energy spectrum.

621.384.6 2874
A High Frequency Cyclotron Generator wih Demountable Tubes—H. Atterling and G. Lindström. (*Ark. Mat. Astr. Fys*, vol. 35, part 1, section A, 9 pp.; April 16, 1948. In English.) Description of the high-frequency oscillator now in use for 32-inch cyclotron at the Nobel Institute for Physics in Stockholm.

621.384.6 2875
An Equipment for Automatic [cyclotron] Resonance Control—G. Lindström (*Ark. Mat. Astr. Fys.*, vol. 35, part 1, section A, 8 pp.; April 16, 1948. In English.) For cyclotron resonance, the product of the magnetic field and the wavelength of the high-frequency system is constant. Both these quantities, however, are liable to drift slowly and steadily. By charging two capacitors in successive equal intervals, and then coupling the capacitors in series, a difference voltage dependent on the rate of drift is obtained. This voltage is used to correct for the drift by altering the magnet current.

621.384.6:621.386 2876
Recent Progress in the Production of X Rays—J. Saget. (*Bull. Soc. Franç. Élec.*, vol. 8, pp. 245–254; May, 1948.) Modern developments of high-voltage equipment, including Van de Graaff generators and all types of particle accelerators, whose principles of operation are described and characteristics tabulated.

621.385.833 2877
The Focal Length of a Long Magnetic Lens—N. Svartholm. (*Ark. Mat. Astr. Fys.*, vol. 35, part 1, section A, 9 pp.; April 16, 1948. In English.) A formula is obtained for the focal length under stated assumptions. Two types of definite integral are involved. See also 2205 of 1941 (Glaser).

621.385.833 2878
100-kV Electron Microscope—(*Elec. Times*, vol. 113, p. 463; April 15, 1948.) A new Metropolitan-Vickers model, E.M.3, which differs from Type E.M.2 principally in the redesign of the electron gun and in the introduction of an extra intermediate projection lens. This lens allows the magnification to be varied continuously from 1000 to 100,000 without alteration of the focal length of the object lens, and also enables the over-all length of the instrument to be reduced considerably.

621.385.833 2879
Experimental Electron Microscope—(*Engineer* (London), vol. 185, p. 517; May 28, 1948.) An illustrated description of the Plessey Co.'s instrument. Suitable specimens can be directly viewed at magnifications up to 20,000 diameters and the images can be further enlarged 10 times by optical methods.

621.385.833 2880
On the Shape of the Field for Electrostatic Lenses—V. V. Sorokina and P. V. Timofeev. (*Zh. Tekh. Fiz.*, vol. 18, pp. 509–516; April, 1948. In Russian.)

621.395.658 2881
A Magnetic Stepping Switch for Control Applications—A. F. Horlacher. (*Electronic Ind.*, vol. 2, pp. 3–5, 11; March, 1948.) Discussion of a switch, essentially similar to those used in automatic telephones, for (a) selection of one channel out of 20 or 40, (b) sequence control, (c) counting, (d) cumulative addition, (e) production of a coded series of pulses.

621.396.9:623.26 2882
Buried Metal Detection—(*Elec. Times*, vol. 113, p. 307; March 11, 1948. Discussion, p. 308.) Summary of two IEE papers. The first, "Development and Use of Magnetic Apparatus for Bomb and Mine Detection," by A. Butterworth, shows the superiority of magnetic over induction detectors for location at great depths. The second, "Development of Locators for Small Metallic Bodies Buried in the Ground," by Roston, discusses the history and future design trends of af detectors, which can be used to discriminate against low-conductivity magnetic materials.

629.13.05 2883
The Physical Principles of Some Basic Aircraft Instruments—W. H. Hoather. (*Jour. Sci. Instr.*, vol. 25, pp. 113–122; April, 1948.) General theory and design of altimeter, air speed indicator, Machmeter, climb indicator, magnetic compass, and similar instruments. Particulars of performance and accuracy are included.

PROPAGATION OF WAVES

621.396.11:551.510:535 2884
Ionospheric Refraction—S. Estrabaud. (*Onde Élec.*, vol. 28, pp. 146–149; April, 1948.) A rigorous law of refraction is established, and the approximations of Försterling and Lassen are critically discussed. Comparison between results deduced from an approximate formula and from that of Försterling and Lassen shows their approximation to be satisfactory in practice. In consequence, the English abacs are to be trusted in all cases where the ion distribution is truly parabolic.

621.396.11:551.510.535 2885
Ionospheric Disturbances—G. H. M. Gleadle. (*P.O. Elec. Eng. Jour.*, vol. 41, part 1, pp. 34–38; April, 1948.) Discussion of the two main kinds of disturbance that upset long-distance short-wave radio communication and of methods of counteracting them, with special reference to the great solar flare of July, 1946.

621.396.11:551.510.535 2886
Techniques for the Application of Ionosphere Data to Practical Short Wave Transmission and Reception—T. W. Bennington. (*Proc. RSGB*, no. 2, pp. 1–7; 1948.) A review of the present knowledge of the ionosphere with particular reference to its effect on long distance short-wave propagation. Typical curves of diurnal, seasonal, and solar cycle variations of the critical frequency are given, and methods of maximum usable frequency forecasting are outlined.

621.396.11:551.510.535 2887
The Determination of Maximum Usable Frequencies for Radio Links—P. Lejay. (*Onde Élec.*, vol. 28, pp. 129–146; April, 1948.) A detailed account, with critical comparison, of American and English methods for the case of (a) a plane earth, and (b) a curved earth. Modification of the results when account is taken of the effect of the earth's magnetic field is also considered.

621.396.11:551.594.6 2888
A Possible Mode of Propagation of the "Slow" or Tail Component in Atmospherics—A. L. Hales. (*Proc. Roy. Soc. A.*, vol. 193, pp. 60–71; April 22, 1948.) Surface wave solutions for the propagation of electromotive waves between infinite plane conductors are obtained. If one of the layers is of finite conductivity, there is a solution which corresponds qualitatively with the observed velocities and periods of the slow component.

621.396.11.029.58 2889
Short-Wave Echoes—H. A. Hess. (*Funk und Ton*, vol. 2, pp. 244–253; May, 1948.) Describes investigations of the reception of signals from stations less than 1000 km distant, where multipath effects and scattering are often observed. The bearing of such effects on the measurement of the time taken for a signal to travel round the earth, and on the measurement of the distance of a transmitter, are discussed. Measurements on signals that have traveled several times round the earth, and on split signals, are also described. See also 2053 of August.

621.396.81 2890
Some Effects of Obstacles on the Propagation of Very Short Radio Waves—E. C. S. Megaw. (*Jour. IEE* (London), part III, vol. 95, pp. 97–105; March, 1948.) Diffraction at a straight edge and round a cylinder is considered, and the scattering of electromotive waves from cylinders is discussed theoretically. Experimental results show the effects of ships' masts and superstructures on vhf communication and navigational radar. In most of the practical problems discussed, prediction to a useful degree of approximation is found possible. Results are also given for transmission over land, showing the effects on decimeter and centimeter waves of hills, trees, buildings, etc., near to or directly in the path of the beam. See also 509, 511, and 518 of 1947.

621.396.81:518.3 2891
Free Space Microwave Propagation—A. L. Hammerschmidt. (*RCA Rev.*, vol. 9, pp. 159–166; March, 1948.) Abacs for calculating the performance of microwave relay equipment.

620.396.812 2892
Simultaneous Field Strength Recording on 47.1, 106.5, and 700 Megacycles—W. L. Carlson. (*RCA Rev.*, vol. 9, pp. 76–84; March, 1948.) For the lower frequencies, the 45-mile path was just beyond optical range, but the 700-Mc transmitting antenna was 340 ft higher than the others; the receiving antennas were located together. Transmissions were recorded on all three frequencies during the summer of 1946 and intermittently thereafter on 47.1 and 106.5 Mc until May 21, 1947. Early afternoon signals usually had steady values, assumed to be those which occur when the gradient g of the atmospheric dielectric constant is normal. Abnormal values of g were more favorable to reception on the higher frequencies. The received 700-Mc field strength was sometimes abnormally high, particularly when rainstorms occurred near the receiver. Typical records are reproduced and discussed.

621.396.812:621.396.97(494) 2893
Broadcasting Research with F.M. Ultra-Short Waves—W. Klein and J. Dufour. (*Tech. Mitt. Schweiz. Telegr.-Teleph Verw.*, vol. 26, pp. 1–21 and 61–83; February 1 and April 1, 1948. In German.) A comprehensive account of reception tests for transmissions from Chasseral, an elevated station N.E. of Neuchâtel. Three characteristic reception zones were noted. In Zone A, the region of direct radiation, appreciably higher field strengths were observed when using horizontally polarized waves, whereas in Zone B, beyond the optical range, vertical polarization gave the greater signal strength. In Zone C, between A and B, reception was markedly dependent on local conditons. A simple type of directive antenna usually gave a decided improvement in reception in this zone, but made little difference in Zone B. See also 546 of March or 2632 of October (Gerber and Tank).

621.396.812.4.029.64 2894
Microwave Propagation Experiments—L. E. Thompson. (PROC. I.R.E., vol. 36, pp. 671–676; May, 1948.) One-way propagation tests at frequencies between 3000 and 4000 Mc are described, for three optical paths. The effect of changes in atmospheric refraction is discussed and methods of reducing signal variations are considered, with special reference to microwave relay communication systems. Theoretical diffraction data are included.

RECEPTION

621.396.621 2895
Bush Model EBS4—(*Wireless World*, vol. 54, pp. 214–215; June, 1948.) Test report. Coverage is continuous for λ 10 to 560 m. Full circuit details are given. The set is designed to withstand tropical conditions.

621.396.621:621.396.619.11 2896
The Synchrodyne Receiver Again—(*Radio and Electronics* (Wellington, N. Z.), vol. 3, pp. 30–34; April 1, 1948.) Abridged version of 525 and 526 of March (Tucker).

621.396.621.2 2897
Input Circuits for Broadcasting Receivers—L. de Valroger. (*Rev. Tech. Comp. Franç. Thomson-Houston*, pp. 5–30; April, 1948. In French.) Conclusion of 2068 of August.

621.396.621.53 2898
Band Spreading by Double Heterodyning—J. Baumgartner. (*Radio Tech.* (Vienna), vol. 24, pp. 185–190; May, 1948.) Various techniques for short-wave band spreading are reviewed and a method is described which gives increased sensitivity, is less susceptible to image-frequency interference and gives a linear frequency distribution on all bands.

621.396.81:621.396.96 2899
Signal-Noise Ratio in Radar—M. Levy. (*Wireless Eng.*, vol. 25, pp. 236–237; July, 1948.) Author's reply to criticism of 1146 of May by de Walden (1739 of July).

621.396.82 2900
Radio Interference in Ships—S. F. Pearce. (*Engineer* (London), vol. 185, pp. 261–263; March 12, 1948.) Details of experiments on interference conducted aboard five merchant ships. The coupling between supply wiring and the antennas, measured at several places on the ship, was -70 ± 13 db. Results indicate that suppression on the ancillary electrical equipment may be reduced to a negligible amount if suitable precautions are taken in the design and layout of the wireless room and nearby supply circuits. High-quality reception should be possible when machines of rf terminal voltage as high as 5 mv are in operation. See also 2348 of September (Matthews and Borrow).

621.396.82 2901
Impulsive Interference in Amplitude-Modulation Receivers—D. Weighton. (*Jour. IEE* (London), part III, vol. 95, pp. 69–79; March, 1948.) The response of an AM receiver to impulsive interference is analyzed, using the Fourier integral theorem. The general behavior of such receivers is deduced from the formulas obtained. The method is applied to the calculation of the performance of noise-suppression circuits, which are classified as amplitude, differential, or delay limiters. Simple expressions are derived for estimating the suppression in any particular case. Experimental results for the first two types are in fair agreement with the calculated values. A comparison is made between the behavior, under conditions of impulsive interference, of FM, pulse-length-modulation, and suppressed AM systems.

621.396.821:551.594.6 2902
Pulse Flux Defining the Operation Threshold for a Receiver-Recorder of the Mean Level of Atmospherics—F. Carbenay. (*Compt. Rend. Acad. Sci.* (Paris), vol. 226, pp. 1710–1712; May 24, 1948.)

621.396.822 2903
Some Fundamental Considerations Concerning Noise Reduction and Range in Radar and Communication—S. Goldman. (PROC. I.R.E., vol. 36, pp. 584–594; May, 1948.) 1947 National Electronics Conference paper. A general analysis of fundamental principles based upon "information theory" and the theory of probability. Three general theorems concerning the probability relations between signal and noise are proved, and one is applied to investigate the effect of pulse length and repetition rate on radar range. The following subjects are discussed: (a) existing noise-improvement systems, and reasons why more powerful systems should be possible; (b) noise improvement thresholds and their dependence upon a coherence standard; (c) laws governing the maximum operating range of a radar or communication system for a given average power, and general methods of increasing this range; (d) the use of extra bandwidth to reduce distortion; (e) possible relations of this work to biology and psychology.

621.396.822:523.16 2904
Radio Noise of Extra-Terrestrial Origin and Its Effect on the Technique of Telecommunications—Lehmann. (*See* 2777.)

621.396.822:621.317.79 2905
Method of Measurement of Noise Ratios and Noise Factors—van der Ziel. (*See* 2860.)

621.396.712:621.396.828 2906
Eliminating Interference Resulting from Coupled Antennas—F. E. Butterfield. (*Communications*, vol. 28, pp. 18, 40; March, 1948.) Serious interference between two 250-w transmitters, operating on frequencies of 1450 kc and 1490 kc respectively and with their antennas 560 ft apart, was practically eliminated by fitting rejection filters in the tuning units of the transmitters. Details of these filters and of their adjustment are given.

STATIONS AND COMMUNICATION SYSTEMS

621.39:[384+620.193.21 2907
The Development and Design of Colonial Telecommunication Systems and Plant; and The General Planning and Organization of Colonial Telecommunication Systems.—C. Lawton and V. H. Winson. (*Jour. IEE* (London), part III, vol. 95, pp. 79–87; March, 1948.) Discussion on 1149 and 1150 of May.

621.391.63/.64 2908
Survey of Near Infra-red Communication Systems—W. S. Huxford and J. R. Platt. (*Jour. Opt. Soc. Amer.*, vol. 38, pp. 253–268; March, 1948.) Sixty years' work is reviewed; only voice and code systems are considered. Discussion of: (a) components used and qualities desirable in such systems; (b) early systems developed before World War I in Germany, and during that war, in America and England; (c) latest equipment developed during World War II in Italy, Japan, Germany, and America. A bibliography of 61 papers is included.

621.391.63/.64 2909
Principles of Optical Communication Systems—H. S. Snyder and J. R. Platt. (*Jour. Opt. Soc. Amer.*, vol. 38, pp. 269–278; March, 1948.) Factors governing the range of optical communication systems are enumerated and discussed. A general equation relating the range to these factors is derived. Laboratory measurements on components are described; from these the field range of a system may be predicted to within $\pm\frac{1}{4}$ mile if the attenuation due to the atmosphere is known.

621.395.43 2910
Multi-Channel Telephony—(*Elec. Times*, vol. 113, p. 432; April 8, 1948.) Short account of an IEE paper by R. J. Halsey and J. Swaffield entitled "Analysis-Synthesis Telephony with Special Reference to the Vocoder." The vocoder uses about 10 frequency bands, selected by band-pass filters whose rectified outputs define the energy in the corresponding parts of the speech spectrum. Transmission of these code signals need only occupy a bandwidth of the order of 300 cps. Details were given of the construction of both the transmitting and receiving equipment, but these details are not included in the present summary.

621.395.47 2911
The Potentialities of the Vocoder for Telephony over Very Long Distances—J. Swaffield. (*P.O. Elec. Eng. Jour.*, vol. 41, part 1, pp. 22–28; April, 1948.) A speech analysis-synthesis system whose design and performance are described. Some of the article is taken from the paper noted in 2910 above.

621.396.41 2912
A Two-Phase Telecommunication System: Parts 1 and 2—D. G. Tucker. (*Electronic Eng.* (London), vol. 20, pp. 150–151 and 192–195; May and June, 1948.) The fundamental principles of a two-phase transmission system are discussed. Two signals in the same frequency band may be separated on demodulation, provided they are originally modulated with carriers having the same frequency but differing in phase, preferably by $\pi/2$. The demodulation is achieved in each of two branches, by carriers whose phase is such that one signal is eliminated in each branch. Stability of phase throughout the system is essential; methods for achieving this are outlined. Other practical difficulties in the design of a system for single- or multiple-channel working are discussed and suggestions are made for suitable equipment.

621.396.619.15 2913
Frequency Shift Telegraphy—Radio and Wire Applications—J. R. Davey and A. L. Matte. (*Bell Sys. Tech. Jour.*, vol. 27, pp. 265–304; April, 1948.) Reprint abstracted in 2362 of September.

621.396.65 2914
A Portable Microwave Communication Set—C. E. Sharp and R. E. Lacy. (PROC. I.R.E., vol. 36, pp. 676–680; May, 1948.) IRE 1947 National Convention paper. A double concentric transmission-line oscillator tube is used in the transmitter, while the receiver is superregenerative. Duplex operation is provided. The total power consumption is about 20 w and the practical communication range in rolling country is 5 miles. The frequency used is 2200 to 2400 Mc.

621.396.65:523.3 2915
Considerations of Moon-Relay Communication—D. D. Grieg, S. Metzger, and R. Waer. (PROC. I.R.E., vol. 36, pp. 652–663; May, 1948.) IRE 1947 National Convention paper. Discussion of communication between two places on the earth's surface by means of radio waves reflected from the moon.

621.396.65:621.396.41 2916
Microwave Radio Communication: Eight-Channel Multiplex Point-to-Point Equipment—(*Electrician*, vol. 140, p. 963; March 26, 1948.) A v.m. $\frac{1}{2}$-w transmitting tube for λ 6 cm is used, with pulse-width modulation for the individual channels, which are sampled at a repetition frequency of 9 kc. At the receiver, the relatively long synchronizing pulse is used to generate a gating pulse in each channel unit. Successful tests have been carried out on an 8-channel link extending 25 miles across London. See also *Wireless World*, vol. 54, p. 179; May, 1948.

621.396.65.029.64 2917
Experimental Studies of a Remodulating Repeater—W. M. Goodall. (PROC. I.R.E., vol. 36, pp. 580–583; May, 1948.) A superheterodyne receiver is used with a microwave reflex-oscillator transmitter to form a repeater. Arrangements are described for testing this system by circulating 1-μs pulses through it and observing the deterioration of the pulse shape after several circulations. Oscillograms show the performance, with and without phase equalization, for 1 to 30 circulations.

621.396.65.029.64 2918
Microwave Repeater Research—H. T. Friis (Ed.). (*Bell Sys. Tech. Jour.*, vol. 27, pp. 183–246; April, 1948.) Discussion of a comprehensive research program, as yet incomplete, for which the New York to Boston link (1755 and 1756 of July) was an initial objective. Sections by various authors deal with (a) propagation studies, (b) repeater circuit planning, (c) antenna research, (d) filter research, (e) repeater amplifier, (f) receiving converter, (g) transmitting converter or modulator, (h) rf amplifier, and (i) the complete repeater.

621.396.65.029.64 2919
Repeaters for the New York to Boston Radio Relay System—A. A. Roetken. (*Bell Lab. Rec.*, vol. 26, pp. 193–198; May, 1948.) Each of the seven repeater stations has 4 repeaters, 2 for each direction of transmission. Si rectifiers are used to shift the signal band from 4000 Mc to an if band with mid-frequency at 65 Mc. After amplification at this frequency, a second varistor modulator is used to shift the frequency back to the microwave range. In the second modulation, an additional shift of 40 Mc is provided so that the signals sent out by the repeater are 40 Mc higher or lower than those received. Amplitude-variations are less than 0.1 db over the 10-Mc pass band and the total noise due to the complete system is barely discernible in a television picture. See also 1755 of July (Durkee).

621.396.65.029.64 2920
Terminals for the New York to Boston Radio Relay System—J. G. Chaffee. (*Bell Lab. Rec.*, vol. 26, pp. 97–100; March, 1948.) Each repeater station is provided with equipment which converts received microwave signals to an if of 65 Mc, amplifies them and translates them back to microwaves for further transmission. At the terminals, television signals and multiplex telephone and other broadband signals are accepted; from these a modulated if wave is produced and then impressed on the microwave transmission. The necessary equipment is described and a block diagram given. See also 1755 of July (Durkee) and 1756 of July (J. M.).

621.396.65.029.64:621.397.743 2921
Two-Way TV Relay—W. H. Forster. (*Tele-Tech*, vol. 7, pp. 46–48; April, 1948.) A wideband FM system between Philadelphia and New York. It operates in the 1295 to 1425-Mc band and requires a 20-Mc channel. The 84 miles are covered by 3 links with an over-all signal-to-noise ratio of 45 db. A block diagram of the transmitter, receiver, and repeater is given and their operation fully described. See also 1756 of July (J. M.).

621.396.712(44) 2922
Allouis OCIII Centre for Broadcasting on Decametre Waves—M. Matricon. (*Onde Élec.*, vol. 28, pp. 121–128; April, 1948.) Details of a new station for world-wide communication, and of its equipment. The station should be in service before the end of 1948. Transmitting power will be not less than 100 kw on the shortest wavelength and will reach 150 kw for λ 50 m. Operating frequencies, which are quartz controlled, range from 6 to 21 Mc. Twelve rhombic antennas are installed and are fed through a specially designed commutation system which permits various combinations of transmitter connections.

621.396.712(493) 2923
Speech-Input Equipment of Brussels Broadcasting House—F. Mortiaux. (*Elec. Commun.*, vol. 24, pp. 415–427; December, 1947.) General description of the equipment, which includes 19 studios, 5 recording rooms, and the necessary communication, signaling and supervisory accessories.

621.396.712.3 2924
Enlarged WOAI/WOAI-FM Studio Technical Facilities—C. Jeffers. (*Communications*,

vol. 28, pp. 12–15, 36; March, 1948.) An account of the modifications of existing facilities and the new equipment rendered necessary for dual AM and FM operation when a FM transmitter was installed.

621.396.931 2925
The Development of a Radio Communication Network for the South African Railways—G. D. Walker. (*Trans. S. Afr. Inst. Elec. Eng.*, vol. 39, part 2, pp. 54–58; February, 1948.) Author's reply to discussion on 2942 of 1947.

621.396.932 2926
Radio in the Merchant Marine—J. J. Canavan. (*Electronics*, vol. 21, pp. 84–89; June, 1948.) A survey of ship communication equipment. Legal requirements and future developments are considered.

SUBSIDIARY APPARATUS

621.3.013.783†:621.316.97 2927
Screening at V.H.F.—Roston. (*See* 2817.)

621.314.653:621.316.722 2928
Ignitrons in Broadcast Service—H. E. Zuvers. (*Tele-Tech*, vol. 7, pp. 27-29, 70; April, 1948.) A combination of ignitor and grid control can be used to regulate rectifier output voltage and also to provide "circuit-breaker" action in the ignitrons themselves in case of a fault in the dc circuit. The general design of a high-voltage ignitron is described and illustrated, and diagrams of ignitron control circuits are given.

621.316.722.1 2929
Shunt Voltage Stabilizer—J. McG. Sowerby. (*Wireless World*, vol. 54, pp. 200–203; June, 1948.) Design details for low internal resistance or high stabilization ratio. Bridge and feedback types are considered. See also 1691 of 1939 (Hunt and Hickman) and 2105 of 1939 (Neher and Pickering).

621.316.722.1 2930
A Negative-Current Voltage-Stabilization Circuit—Peilin Luo. (PROC. I.R.E., vol. 36, p. 583; May, 1948.) The circuit of a stabilizer using two triodes is analyzed. With this circuit, stabilization within 0.21 per cent was obtained; the corresponding value for a simpler conventional circuit was 7.5 per cent.

621.317.755:778.3 2931
An Oscilloscope Camera—H. E. Hale and H. P. Mansberg. (*Electronics*, vol. 21, pp. 102–107; June, 1948.) Continuous records of cro patterns are made on film or paper at speeds from 1 inch per minute to 5 ft per sec, using electronic motor control.

621.352.1:536.48/.49 2932
Operation of Lead-Acid Batteries under Extreme Climatic Conditions—W. Lever. (*Elec. Times*, vol. 113, pp. 329–331; March 18, 1948.) At 0°F the effective capacity is reduced by as much as 50 per cent of that at 75 to 80°F; there is a serious risk of freezing of the acid when the battery is discharged; charging is inefficient, on account of higher internal resistance. At high temperatures—above 90°F—serious sulphation may occur with acid of customary specific gravity, so that the working specific gravity must be reduced. Self-discharge rates are also greatly increased.

621.352.7 2933
Correlations of the Gel Strength of Paste Walls and the Shelf Life of Electric Dry Cells—W. J. Hamer, (*Jour. Res. Nat. Bur. Stand.*, vol. 40, pp. 251–262; March, 1948.)

621.396.68:621.316.722.1 2934
A Note on Stabilising Power Supplies—E. J. Harris. (*Electronic Eng.* (London), vol. 20, pp. 96–97; March, 1948.) The Miller circuit uses two double triodes to mix and amplify fractions of the input and output voltages. Both these functions are here performed by a single hexode.

621.396.68:621.397.6 2935
Television E.H.T. [extra high voltage] Supply—A. H. B. Walker. (*Wireless World*, vol. 54, p. 215; June, 1948.) Corrections to 2390 of September.

TELEVISION AND PHOTOTELEGRAPHY

621.397:621.383 2936
Facsimile Modulator Tube—Shonnard. (*See* 2961.)

621.397.331.2:621.385.832 2937
New Viewing Tube for Color TV—A. Bronwell. (*Tele-Tech*, vol. 7, pp. 40–41, 65; March, 1948.) The "Chromoscope" cathode-ray tube contains a single electron gun and a specially designed color image screen having four parallel semitransparent screens which are electrically insulated from each other so as to permit independent control of the screen potentials. The screen nearest the gun is relatively transparent to light and electrons and is given a constant high positive potential, while the other three are coated with phosphors corresponding to the primary colors and are constructed so that one-third of the available electrons strike each screen. Fluorescence occurs on any one color screen while the others are extinguished if a high positive potential is applied to the screen which is to fluoresce and a low potential to the other two. To obtain a three-color picture, it is merely necessary to apply a high positive potential in turn to the three color screens.

Observer parallax errors exist, since the three color screens cannot coincide, but these errors would not be apparent in a projection type of television system.

As electronic switching can be used, the color interval may be made very small and synchronized with the line sweep frequency, This suppresses the two objectionable characteristics of color systems known as color flicker and color break-up. For another account see *Electronic Eng.* (London), vol. 20, pp. 190–191; June, 1948.

621.397.335 2938
Television Field Equipment—J. R. Smith. (*FM and Telev.*, vol. 7, pp. 30–32; December, 1947.) A synchronizing generator is described which provides all the timing impulses required to operate one or more television cameras; viz., horizontal and vertical driving signals, and synchronizing and blanking signals.

621.397.5 2939
Television D.C. Component—K. R. Wendt. (*RCA Rev.*, vol. 9, pp. 85–111; March, 1948.) A general survey, with reference to transmitter and receiver applications. The relative merits of various restorer circuits are considered. The design of equipment for receiving the signal with the dc component present is also discussed.

621.397.5 2940
Electro-Optical Characteristics of Television Systems: Introduction and Part 1—O. H. Schade. *RCA Rev.*, vol. 9, pp. 5–37; March, 1948.) A general review and broad methods of analysis, with discussion of vision and visual systems.

621.397.5:535.88 2941
Large-Screen Television Projector of the Compagnie des Compteurs—P. Mandel. (*Bull. Soc. Franç. Élec.*, vol. 8, pp. 191–200; April, 1948.) Details are first given of the high-frequency receiver and video amplifier. The projection cathode-ray tube uses a maximum voltage of 80 kv and has a mean beam current of 0.5 ma and maximum 2 ma. A special powder is used for the coating of the 20-cm screen. The image is finally projected on a screen made up of a very large number of tiny concave mirrors, whose dimensions are appreciably less than those of an element of a 450-line image. The surface of the screen is concave, the radius being 9 m; the image size is 3 m×2.25 m.

621.397.5:535.88 2942
Big Picture Practices—(*Tele-Tech*, vol. 7, pp. 30–35, 67; March, 1948.) A survey of large-size television picture display systems in America, ranging from large direct-viewing cathode-ray tubes in metal tubes to optical projection systems and lens magnifiers. No one method seems superior to the others.

621.397.5:535.88 2943
New Projection Package for Television—L. J. A. van Lieshout. (*Tele-Tech*, vol. 7, pp. 30–35, 56; April, 1948.) A folded adaptation of the Schmidt optical system, designed to fit into cabinets of various sizes. A sealed transformer unit using a ferroxcube score provides a 25-kv second-anode supply for the MW-6 projection tube.

621.397.5:791.9 2944
Theater Television—a General Analysis—A. N. Goldsmith. (*Jour. Soc. Mot. Pic. Eng.*, vol. 50, pp. 95–117; February, 1948. Discussion, pp. 118–121.) A descriptive report of the present partly developed state of the art, with discussion of possible future trends.

621.397.6 2945
Film Pickup System—H. R. Smith and G. S. Gregory. (*FM and Telev.*, vol. 8, pp. 31–33, 49; March, 1948.) Discussion of equipment for converting pictures obtained from slides or films into the form required for the program mixing facilities of standard television stations. The equipment consists of an iconoscope scanning unit, control desk, and associated power units. Provision is made for the inversion of black and white so that negatives can be used as originals. Special care has been taken to provide easy access for servicing and testing.

621.397.6:621.385.832 2946
Barrier Grid Storage Tube and Its Operation—Jensen, Smith, Mesner, and Flory. (*See* 2986.)

621.397.6:621.396.68 2947
Television E.H.T. [extra high voltage] Supply—A. H. B. Walker. (*Wireless World*, vol. 54, p. 215; June, 1948.) Corrections to 2390 of September.

621.397.61 2948
TV Transmitter Design—G. E. Hamilton. (*Communications*, vol. 28, pp. 12–15, 30; May, 1948.) Discussion of design trends, with special consideration of video amplifier and modulator requirements, and modulated amplifier and Class-B linear amplifier stages. The operation of dc restorer circuits is also analyzed.

621.397.61-182.3 2949
How WABD Handles Remotes—O. Freeman. (*Tele-Tech*, vol. 7, pp. 42–45, 85; March, 1948.) Description of apparatus and operational procedure for televising sporting and other special events. See also 3685 of 1947.

621.397.62:621.385.1 2950
Radio-Frequency Performance of Some Receiving Tubes in Television Circuits—Cohen. (*See* 2971.)

621.397.645:621.397.62 2951
Selectivity in Television Amplifiers: Problems of Sound-Channel Rejection—W. T. Cocking. (*Wireless World*, vol. 54, pp. 204–207; June, 1948.) To accept the full radiated bandwidth of ±3 Mc the response curve must have a cutoff slope of at least 54 db per Mc on the side nearest the sound channel. Single-sideband working and the relative merits of superheterodyne and straight reception are discussed.

621.397.743:621.396.65.029.64 2952
Two-Way TV Relay—Forster. (*See* 2921.)

TRANSMISSION

621.316.726.078.3:538.569.4 2953
Frequency Stabilization with Microwave Spectral Lines—W. D. Hershberger and L. E. Norton. (*RCA Rev.*, vol. 9, pp. 38–49; March,

1948.) IRE 1948 National Convention paper. Absorption lines of gases at reduced pressure exhibit Q values of 100,000 in the 24,000-Mc range, and the center frequency is unaffected by pressure and temperature. Stabilization of a K-band klystron has been effected, using the 23,870.1-Mc line of ammonia contained in a short section of matched waveguide, both at the center frequency of the line itself and at frequencies removed from the line frequency by a controlled intermediate frequency. Indications are that the frequency stability attained compares favorably with that of quartz crystals but with the added advantages that arise from the inherent stability of spectral lines. Applications to a wide range of frequencies in the microwave range, and to a clock of high precision, are indicated.

621.396.61 2954

The Mighty Midget [transmitter]—H. L. Apple. (*CQ*, vol. 4, pp. 27–30; March, 1948.) Construction, circuit, and operation details of a 35-w fixed or portable transmitter weighing only $3\frac{1}{4}$ lb, and with over-all measurements $3\frac{1}{4}$ inches by 5 inches by $5\frac{1}{4}$ inches. Only standard full-size components are used.

621.396.61:621.396.41 2955

Medium-Power Multichannel Communication Transmitters—B. T. Ellis. (*Elec. Commun.*, vol. 24, pp. 433–435; December, 1947.) A brief description of fractional-kilowatt transmitters for continuous service. Separate rf units are used with a common power supply and modulator to provide alternative frequency channels. Six units may be accommodated, giving three frequency bands, 200 to 540 kc, 2 to 20 Mc, and 108 to 140 Mc, on each of which two channels may be used simultaneously, provided that they are not both used for telephony.

621.396.61:621.396.712 2956

20-kW Broadcasting Transmitters Type TH1392—C. Beurtheret. (*Rev. Tech. Comp.* (Franç.), pp. 41–49; April, 1948. In French.) Description, with illustrations of particular sections, of a "Monobloc" transmitter for the range 550 to 1560 kc. Within the useful modulation range of the transmitter, harmonic distortion is of the order of 1 per cent for all fundamentals from 30 to 5000 cps. Background noise is 70 db below the maximum level of modulation.

621.396.61.029.62 2957

Engineering a 50-kW F.M. Transmitter—C. J. Starner. (*Tele-Tech*, vol. 7, pp. 42–45, 72; April, 1948.) Discussion of tube and circuit design developments to secure efficient operation in the range 88 to 108 Mc. Grounded-grid circuits are used with air-cooled external-anode triodes Type 7C24 and Type 5592. The exciter unit includes all the frequency-generating, modulating, and frequency-multiplying circuits of the transmitter, except the final doubler. Center-frequency stability is maintained automatically to within 1 kc by comparing a subharmonic of the modulated signal with a standard crystal-controlled frequency, using the frequency difference to operate a correcting device.

621.396.619.23 2958

Reducing F.M. Band-Width—A. G. Chambers. (*Wireless World*, vol. 54, pp. 221–222; June, 1948.) Discussion and circuit diagram of a crystal-controlled reactance modulator unit.

VACUUM TUBES AND THERMIONICS

621.383 2959

The Structure of Photo-Sensitive Lead Sulphide and Lead Selenide Deposits and the Effect of Sensitization by Oxygen—H. Wilman. (*Proc. Phys. Soc.*, vol. 60, pp. 117–132; February 1, 1948.) An investigation, by electron diffraction and photoconductivity experiments of the structure of these deposits, prepared by chemical deposition and by sublimation in vacuo or in oxygen. The PbS and PbSe crystals were found to have a lattice axial dimension which was constant to 0.1 per cent in all samples measured, even in strongly oxidized products. Oxygen treatments increase the sensitivity of PbS to wavelengths of 1 to 3μ, but do not do so for PbSe.

621.383:535.247.4 2960

Concerning the Local Variations of Sensitivity in Photocells—N. Laycock and G. T. Winch. (*Compt. Rend. Acad. Sci.* (Paris), vol. 226, p. 1445; May 3, 1948.) KMV6 and RMV6 photo cells can be used for high-precision photometry in spite of the sensitivity variations observed by Terrien, Anglade, and Touvay (1814 of July), provided that the measured light is distributed always in the same manner on the cell cathode. The construction of these photo cells has recently been modified to reduce local sensitivity variations.

621.383:621.397 2961

Facsimile Modulator Tube—J. R. Shonnard. (*Electronics*, vol. 21, pp. 82–83; June, 1948.) A new type of photo cell with simplified bridge modulator that enables light from the facsimile scanner to produce the modulation directly without generating frequencies that must be eliminated by costly filters. The cell has two flat cathodes which act alternately as cathode and anode. High resolution is obtained, and the output range is more than sufficient for average transmission channels.

621.385.029.63/.64 2962

The Theory of the Traveling-Wave Tube—O. E. H. Rydbeck. (*Ericsson Tech.*, no. 46, 18 pp.; 1948. In English.) The small-signal theory is developed in detail. The variation of the amplification range of the beam velocity with beam current (J) and diameter is discussed. For small beam currents, the gain of the amplified wave component varies as $J^{1/3}$, but, in general, this gain varies as $J^{1/4}$ and is also proportional to the voltage bandwidth. The characteristic impedances of the helix waves are deduced and the total helix output voltage is computed for a particular case as a function of beam velocity. Interaction between the components of the helix waves produces an output-voltage versus beam-velocity curve with a very characteristic shape. This has been proved experimentally. A typical cro record of such a curve is reproduced. This curve was obtained for $\lambda \simeq 3$ cm with one of the traveling-wave tubes developed at the Massachusetts Research Laboratory of Electronics.

621.385.1 2963

Anode Current, Noise Factor, and Current Modulation of a Valve with a Nonlinear Characteristic in Class A, B, and C Operation—H. Kanberg. (*Funk und Ton*, vol. 2, pp. 140–149, 193–207, and 227–243; March to May, 1948.) A comprehensive mathematical treatment. The amplitudes of all harmonics up to the fifth are calculated for various characteristics defined by different values of m in the formula $I_a = KV^m$, where I_a is the anode current and V the effective control voltage. The results are presented graphically and discussed; curves are also given for the anode-current noise factor.

621.385.1 2964

Reflections in Electron Tubes—J. L. H. Jonker. (*Philips Res. Rep.*, vol. 2, pp. 331–339; October, 1947.) The effect of reflected electrons on the electric field between the electrodes is deduced from observations at low potentials. Irregularities in some tube characteristics are thus explained.

621.385.1 2965

Special Valves—M. Alixant. (*Radio Tech. Dig.* (Franç.), vol. 2, pp. 95–103; April, 1948.) Operational data for a wide range of tubes particularly suitable for television, including also cathode-ray tubes, Ge and Si rectifiers, and stabilizers.

621.385.1 2966

Rugged Electron Tubes—I. L. Cherrick. (*Electronics*, vol. 21, pp. 111–113; April, 1948.) Discussion of: (a) the United States Joint Army and Navy Electron Tube Specifications for electrical and mechanical stresses that tubes must withstand, (b) an "impact machine" for testing tubes, (c) structural alterations required in Types 6L6GA, 6AC7, 2050, 6H6GT and 6AL5, (d) reduction of heater failure by using helical coil heaters, (e) the use of more rugged clips and stops.

621.385.1 2967

Modern Transmitting Valves under Different Operating Conditions—F. Jenny. (*Brown Boveri Rev.*, vol. 34, pp. 139–142; June and July, 1947.) A brief general survey of properties and modes of operation. Characteristics of the ATL and ATW series of tubes, with anode dissipation up to 50 kw, are tabulated.

621.385.1 2968

Table of the Characteristics of New European Valves—(*Radio Franç.*, pp. 16–17; March, 1948.) Details of the following: triode-hexode frequency changer, UCH41; high-frequency pentode with variable slope, UF41; single diode-pentode with variable slope, UAF41; output pentode, UL41; half-wave rectifiers, UY41 and UY42.

621.385.1:519.2 2969

Notes on the Exponential Distribution in Statistics [of valve life]—Lewis. (*See* 2836.)

621.385.1:537.291 2970

The Excitation of Resonance Circuits by Electron Streams in the Transit-Time Region—F. W. Gundlach. (*Arch. Elek. Übertragung*, vol. 1., pp. 173–183; November and December, 1947.) A method is described for determining the magnitude of the active and wattless currents arising from the excitation of oscillations in a resonator by the action of periodic electron streams. The intensity and velocity of the streams across the excitation space can depend in any way whatever on the time. Curves are provided to simplify calculation for all commonly occurring cases, including retarding-field excitation.

621.385.1:621.397.62 2971

Radio-Frequency Performance of Some Receiving Tubes in Television Circuits—R. M. Cohen. (*RCA Rev.*, vol. 9, pp. 136–148; March, 1948.) Measurements of over-all gain, noise, image rejection, and oscillator frequency stability were made on a number of tubes used in the rf amplifiers, mixers, and local oscillators of television receivers. Both push-pull and unbalanced circuits are discussed. Measurements were made in the frequency bands 66 to 72 Mc and 198 to 204 Mc.

621.385.1.012.3:621.316.722 2972

Circuit Design for Gas-Discharge Regulator Tubes—W. G. Hoyle. (*Tele-Tech*, vol. 7, pp. 46–47, 72; February, 1948.) Graphical methods for determining circuit parameters to ensure that tubes are operated within their normal ratings.

621.385.1.032.216 2973

Variation of the Spectral Emissive Power of Oxide Cathodes as a Function of Various Factors—R. Champeix. (*Compt. Rend. Acad. Sci.* (Paris), vol. 226, pp. 1256–1257; April 19, 1948.) Experiments show that the emissive power (ϵ_λ) decreases as the thickness of the oxide layer increases. For thin layers ϵ_λ may be 0.35, dropping to 0.05 for thick layers. For layers of the thickness normally used in small tubes, about 60 to 70 μ, ϵ_λ is about 0.2 but varies between 0.1 and 0.3. The spectral emissive power of Ni increases rapidly with temperature, but that of oxide cathodes is little affected by temperature or activation. ϵ_λ is slightly lower after activation. See also 1010 of May (Champeix).

621.385.032.216 2974

Thermionic Emission from Oxide-Coated Cathodes—F. A. Vick. (*Jour. Sci. Instr.*, vol. 25, pp. 56–60; February, 1948.) A report of the

London Summer Meeting of the Electronics Group of the Institute of Physics, June 14, 1947, at which papers describing recent work on the subject were discussed. The use of oxide cathodes for pulse work has led to speculation on the mechanism by which peak saturated current can be many times the normal saturated current at the same temperature. X-ray study of the structure of oxide cathodes shows that during life the surface layers become nearly pure SrO and rectifying barrier-layer compounds are formed at the core oxide boundary. The resistance of this latter layer has been measured and the potential difference across it at high currents could limit the emission available from the cathode. For a shorter account of the meeting see *Nature* (London, vol. 160, pp. 725–726; November 22, 1947.)

621.385.15 2975

Electron Multiplier Tube of Large Effective Cathode Surface Area—P. S. Faragó. (*Nature* (London), vol. 161, p. 60; January 10, 1948.) The effective area is increased by the use of an electrostatic lens to project the electron-optical image of a large-surface cathode on the first multiplying electrode of an ordinary multiplier tube.

621.385.2 2976

Extension and Application of Langmuir's Calculations on a Plane Diode with Maxwellian Velocity Distribution of the Electrons—A. van der Ziel. (*Philips Res. Rep.*, vol. 1, pp. 97–118; January, 1946.) Langmuir's differential equation for the potential distribution between cathode and anode is extended to the saturated and exponential regions of the characteristic. Formulas are derived relating the transconductance of a diode to the anode voltage and current and to the cathode temperature. The quantity C/C_0 is also calculated for a triode, where C is the equivalent ac grid capacitance under operating conditions and C_0 the capacitance when cold. Exact calculation is somewhat difficult, but approximate calculation is greatly simplified by making certain assumptions.

621.385.2 2977

Extension of Langmuir's (ξ, η) Tables for a Plane Diode with a Maxwellian Distribution of the Electrons—P. H. J. A. Kleynen. (*Philips Res. Rep.*, vol. 1, pp. 81–96; January, 1946.) Langmuir's tables have been extended by graphical interpolation and by calculation. Graphs show (a) the value of the potential minimum as a function of anode current at different cathode temperatures, (b) the distance d_m of this minimum from the cathode as a function of anode current at a cathode temperature of 700°C for different values of the saturation current. A table is given whereby similar curves for d_m for other temperatures can be calculated. Examples illustrate the use of the (ξ, η) tables. See also 2976 above.

621.385.3 2978

Dimensional Analysis Applied to Very-High-Frequency Triodes—G. Lehmann. (*Elec. Commun.*, vol. 24, pp. 391–408; September, 1947.) English version of 3821 of 1946.

621.385.3 2979

The Dyotron Microwave Oscillator—(*Communications*, vol. 28, pp. 24–25; May, 1948.) Summary of IRE 1948 National Convention paper by E. D. McArthur noted in 2664 of October. A new type of uhf tube, which is unusually stable, has a very wide tuning range and can be used in local oscillators. A 70-pF capacitor connects grid and cathode inside the tube, which otherwise is similar to the 2C39 triode. Experiments are described in which a single coaxial cavity with a piston tuner is used; a continuous tuning range of 370 to 3700 Mc is obtained.

621.385.3 2980

A.C. Operated Triodes—A. Grainge. (*Electronic Eng.*, vol. 20, pp. 178–180; June, 1948.) A graphical method for predicting the operating conditions of a triode which derives anode voltage from ac mains. The method is used to design a sensitive relay for the indirect control of a 2-kw load.

621.385.4.029.62/.63 2981

500-Mc Transmitting Tetrode Design Considerations—W. G. Wagener. (PROC. I.R.E., vol. 36, pp. 611–619; May, 1948.) IRE 1947 National Convention paper. Discussion of characteristics of a power amplifier for the 30 to 500-Mc band and of the relative merits of triodes and tetrodes in this range. For tetrodes, self-neutralization occurs at a particular frequency, which can be adjusted by external circuit arrangements. Tetrodes are preferred to neutralized triodes, chiefly on the ground of greater stability. Two new transmitting tetrodes are described.

621.385.5:621.395.92 2982

Hivac Miniature Valves—O. P. Herrnkind. (*Funk und Ton*, vol. 2, pp. 254–259; May, 1948.) Data and characteristics of XWO 75A and B pentodes for initial stages and of XYI 4A, B and C output pentodes. These tubes are particularly suitable for use in hearing aids, on account of their small size and low current consumption.

621.385.832 2983

An Image Storage Tube—(*Electronics*, vol. 21, pp. 132, 134; May, 1948.) Extract from *Air Technical Intelligence. Tech. Data Digest*, p. 11; July 1, 1947. Description of the Krawinkel storage tube developed in Germany. The writing beam charges up a storage plate of small capacitors which can remain charged for three weeks. The storage surface may be scanned and an image projected on to a fluorescent screen. Leakage is minimized by incorporating in the tube a triode with a getter-coated anode, to maintain a high vacuum.

621.385.832:535.767 2984

Stereoscopic Viewing of Cathode-Ray Tube Presentations—H. A. Iams, R. L. Burtner, and C. H. Chandler. (*RCA Rev.*, vol. 9, pp. 149–158; March, 1948.) Discussion of: (a) two methods of presenting 3-dimensional information on cathode-ray tubes, with examples of oscillograms and radar presentations in 3 dimensions, (b) the effect of flicker on stereoscopic viewing, and (c) possible applications.

621.385.832:621.396.96 2985

The Visibility of Signals on Radar Range Presentations—E. R. Andrew. (*Jour. IEE* (London), part IIIA, vol. 93, no. 10, pp. 1559–1563; 1946.) An investigation of the dependence of the minimum detectable signal on parameters of the equipment, such as pulse length, bandwidth, timebase speed, and brightness of the oscilloscope trace.

621.385.832:621.397.6 2986

Barrier Grid Storage Tube and Its Operation—A. S. Jensen, J. P. Smith, M. H. Mesner, and L. E. Flory. (*RCA Rev.*, vol. 9, pp. 112–135; March, 1948.) Two cathode-ray tubes, one with electromotive and one with electrostatic focusing and deflection systems, have been designed for storing video signals electrostatically on an insulating screen. Methods of measurement of the tube characteristics are described and the theory of operation is discussed. After storage times of up to 100 hours, there was no evidence of distortion or decay.

621.396.615.141.2 2987

Low-Power Resonant-Segment Magnetrons for Centimetre Waves—J. C. Dix and E. C. S. Megaw. (*Jour IEE* (London), part IIIA, vol. 93, no. 10, pp. 1585–1592; 1946.) The development and use of a range of small glass magnetrons having anode systems consisting of a number of interleaved segments. Characteristics of Types E1210, CV79, and CV89 are given, together with descriptions of the associated circuits. Methods of modulation, particularly pulse-width modulation, are also discussed.

621.396.615.142.2 2988

Multifrequency Bunching in Reflex Klystrons—W. H. Huggins. (PROC. I.R.E., vol. 36, pp. 624–630; May, 1948.) Webster's simple bunching theory is estended to include simultaneous oscillations in a reflex klystron at two or more frequencies. General expressions for the power and electronic admittance are derived that show the intermodulation effects of the oscillations upon each other.

621.314.63 2989

Crystal Rectifiers [Book Review]—H. C. Torrey and C. A. Whitmer (Eds.). McGraw-Hill, New York, N. Y., 1948, 443 pp., $7.50. (*Electronics*, vol. 21, pp. 248, 250; June, 1948.) Vol. 15 of the MIT Radiation Laboratory series. The object is "to present the fund of knowledge on crystal rectifiers that accumulated during the course of World War II."

MISCELLANEOUS

621.3 2990

Electrical Research—(*Engineer* (London), vol. 185, p. 182; February 20, 1948.) A report of some of the activities of the British Electrical and Allied Industries Research Association during 1947.

621.3 (083.74) 2991

Standard Terms and Abbreviations—H. Jefferson and A. L. Meyers. (*Wireless Eng.*, vol. 25, p. 236; July, 1948.) Comment on 2426 to 2428 of September

621.38:519.283 2992

Statistical Methods in the Design and Development of Electronic Systems—L. S. Schwartz. (PROC. I.R.E., vol. 36, pp. 664–670; May, 1948.) IRE 1948 National Convention paper.

621.395 2993

Progress of Telecommunication Services in British Post Office—(*Elec. Commun.*, vol. 24, pp. 300–309; September, 1947.) A general review of the British telephone service with brief reference to oversea radio links and ship-to-shore radiotelephone systems.

621.396 2994

Radio Progress during 1947—(PROC. I.R.E., vol. 36, pp. 522–550; April, 1948.) This summary for 1947 covers generally, for the subjects dealt with, developments described in publications issued up to about the first of November. The material has been prepared by members of the 1947 Annual Review Committee of the Institute, with editing and co-ordinating by the Chairman. A bibliography of 689 references arranged under broad subject headings is given.

621.39 2995

The Fundamental Research Problems of Telecommunications [Book Notice]—Department of Scientific and Industrial Research. H. M. Stationery Office, London, March, 1948. 80 pp., 1s. 6d. (*Govt. Publ.* (London) p. 16, April, 1948.) Comprises the reports of the nine working parties set up by the Telecommunications Research Committee (chairman: Sir Stanley Angwin).

621.396(075.8) 2996

Radio Engineering [Book Review]—F. E. Terman. McGraw-Hill, New York, N. Y., and London, 3rd edition 1947, 969 pp., $7.00. (PROC. I.R.E., vol. 36, pp. 511–512; April, 1948.) The co-ordination and combination with older material of developments in radio engineering in the last ten years has been so accomplished that "the whole is incorporated within the covers of a single volume suitable for classroom use of engineering seniors." Fundamental principles are emphasized throughout.